



Victoria R.

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VICTORIA

Sixty Years a Queen

A SKETCH OF HER LIFE AND TIMES

BY

RICHARD T. LANCEFIELD

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WITH AN INTRODUCTION

BY

HON. G. W. ROSS, LL.D.

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THIS RECORD
OF
THE LIFE AND TIMES OF
Victoria

OUR QUEEN AND EMPRESS

IS DEDICATED TO

HIS FELLOW BRITISH SUBJECTS, RESIDENT IN THE UNITED KINGDOM OF GREAT BRITAIN
AND IRELAND, OR IN ANY PORTION OF THE "GREATER BRITAIN BEYOND THE SEAS,"
WHO, THANKFUL FOR THE INFLUENCE WHICH THE LOFTY PERSONALITY OF
HER MAJESTY HAS HAD UPON HER COURT AND PEOPLE, AND GRATE-
FUL FOR THE CIVIL AND RELIGIOUS LIBERTIES ENJOYED,
UNDER THE ENGLISH CONSTITUTION, THROUGHOUT
HER VAST EMPIRE, WILL, WITH THE
AUTHOR, REVERENTLY AND
FERVENTLY PRAY

God Save The Queen!

God Save The Queen.

God save our gracious Queen,
Long live our noble Queen,
God save the Queen ;
Send her victorious,
Happy and glorious,
Long to reign over us ;
God save the Queen.

Thy choicest gifts in store
On her be pleased to pour,
Long may she reign ;
May she defend our laws,
And ever give us cause;
To sing with heart and voice,
God save the Queen.

INTRODUCTION.

TO the millions of people composing the British Empire, the life of a sovereign who has reigned for over sixty years, with such dignity and grace as her Gracious Majesty Queen Victoria, is of no ordinary interest. It is usual for those who favor a republican form of government to say that a ruler elected by popular vote is far more likely to protect the constitutional rights of the people than one who enters upon the exercise of sovereignty by hereditary precedence, and in proof of this, examples are cited of the despotic character of hereditary rulers at different periods of the world's history. While it may be true that in most cases the presidents of the great republics, both in America and in the Old World, have been men of ability, it has occurred more than once, at least in the experience of the United States, that mediocrity has been preferred to the most commanding talents; as, for instance, the defeat of Daniel Webster by a man who had made comparatively no record in the councils of the nation.

It must be admitted that heredity does not furnish an absolute guarantee of fitness for the exercise of the powers or prerogatives of sovereignty. The throne of Great Britain has been occupied more than once by men whose character for ability, if submitted to the popular test, would scarcely secure for them the distinction which they enjoyed; and yet no person who reads the history of England impartially can fail to find in almost every ruler characteristics of a kingly character, which, in one form or another, justified the people in regarding their sovereign as the representative of the public opinion of the realm. Who will say that the Tudors, with all their arrogance and love of power, were not, in the main, well qualified to defend the rights of the people during the perilous times of the middle ages? The Stuarts, too, though despotic by instinct, as well as by practice, were the fearless champions of the nation against foreign encroachment. In the days when every nobleman was a cavalier, possessing almost unlimited power over his vassals, it is, perhaps, not to be wondered at that the sovereign, who was, by virtue of his office, the first nobleman

of the land, should be more exacting than a strict interpretation of the usages of Parliament and the unwritten laws of England should warrant. The spirit of ecclesiasticism, which made the king the head of the Church, as well as of the State, had much to do with the abuse of that power which the Stuarts considered the divine right of kings, and which they exercised with an insolent disregard of the feelings or rights of their subjects. After the great revolution, however, the subjection of the monarch to the constitution was asserted by Parliament in such unmistakable terms that no sovereign, howsoever disposed, could for any length of time, substitute for the will of the people his own arbitrary decrees. It is true that, as one estate of the realm, the sovereign was at all times an important factor in administration. Apart from his personal knowledge of public affairs, the right which he possessed to dismiss his advisers gave him a potential voice in the policy of the State; but beyond this, the will of Parliament was practically the will of the sovereign, and whatever might be his personal preferences, that will ultimately prevailed. Every reader of English history knows with what determination, not to say obstinacy, George IV. refused to accept the Catholic Emancipation Act, and with what dread his successor regarded the passage of the Reform Bill of 1832. It is possible that both measures were delayed by the repugnance of the monarch to the provisions which they contained, but neither of them saw fit to exercise the veto power which he possessed in thwarting the will of Parliament. Even under the advanced opinion of the last decade of a century, so noticeable for its constitutional reforms, it is no unusual thing for the President of the United States to balk the voice of 70,000,000 of people, in Congress expressed, by a presidential veto; and yet we are told that under a republican form of government the will of the people is more generously interpreted than under a monarchy.

But while there is a possibility that under the British constitution the throne may be occupied by a sovereign unworthy of the position, it is to be remembered that every person, whether as heir apparent or heir presumptive, is educated and trained from earliest infancy with a view to the honors which may befall him. Being born to greatness, he is prepared for discharging the responsibilities which it involves, and when he enters upon his kingly prerogatives, the transition is more a matter of form than of reality. Constitutionally, therefore, the demise of the monarch is a far slighter shock to the Government of the country than even the demise of parliament or a presidential election, as it necessarily involves no change of policy either in domestic or in foreign affairs.

The reign of Queen Victoria illustrates the value of kingly training in a remarkable degree. It is not desirable to anticipate the narrative which follows, but the student of English history may very properly notice that the basis of parliamentary government has greatly expanded during the last sixty years. The parliament over which her Majesty first presided, represented the voice of less than one million electors, or about one in every twenty of the population. The parliament over which she now presides represents over six million electors, or about one-sixth of the whole population. That is to say, the Sovereign has extended her confidence in her subjects six-fold, and has thus given practical force to the words of Tennyson, in which her throne is described as

Broad-based upon a nation's will.

With this expansion has also come a more equitable distribution of electoral power, the removal of class disabilities, and the recognition, with very moderate limitations of the right of every loyal subject to partake in the government of the nation. During no period in English history has there been such a triumph of democracy or such an acknowledgment of the rights of the people to speak directly through their representatives within the ancient halls of the British House of Commons.

The influence of the British Empire, politically and commercially, has also grown in an equal, if not in a greater ratio. In the early part of this century it appeared to be the general conviction that the power of Britain in the councils of the world depended upon the number of men which she could place in the field at a moment's notice. The moral equation of government had but very little weight. During her Majesty's reign this condition of things has entirely changed, and that the change is largely owing to her personal influence is now beyond question. Her remonstrance with Lord Palmerston for his interference in the affairs of France when Napoleon III., by an unexpected *coup d'état* became Emperor, her letters addressed to the Emperor of Russia during the Crimean War, her appeal to the Emperor of Germany not to humiliate France at the time of the Franco-Prussian War, her messages of sympathy to the United States on the occasion of national bereavement, greatly strengthened the moral power of Great Britain and its political influence in the councils of the world. It is probably true, as Lord Dufferin said in a recent speech at Belfast, that force is still necessary to the existence of every nation. That Britain has a very practical sense

of its value is evident by her liberal expenditure upon her army and her navy; yet no one will underrate the high estimate placed upon the value of moral considerations in determining the fate of nations which has so characterized the action of her Majesty during her long reign.

To attribute to the Sovereign the commercial prosperity of a country is perhaps presuming too far upon her influence in material things. This much, however, may very properly be said that a sovereign who promotes the peace of a nation, who avoids all foreign entanglements in expensive and destructive wars, and whose policy enables the whole industrial strength of the people to be devoted to the development of the national resources may, legitimately, claim a share in the commercial prosperity which naturally follows. When it is said that the French war with Napoleon added £323,000,000 to the national debt, that the Crimean war added £40,000,000, that since the Crimean war the national debt has decreased £160,000,000 sterling, it becomes very apparent what untold calamities may be inflicted upon a people by the belligerency of parliament or of the reigning sovereign. No one but her Prime Ministers can tell to what extent her influence has averted not only the loss of life but the loss of treasure, which rulers like some of her predecessors would have regarded with supreme indifference.

Not the least significant of the events of her Majesty's reign is the territorial expansion of her possessions. Her colonies have increased in population from 5,100,000 in 1840, to 19,312,000 in 1895. Her possessions in India from 150 millions to over 300 millions; the geographical area over which she holds sway from slightly over five millions of square miles to nearly nine millions of square miles. In most cases this territory has been acquired by peaceful negotiation or preoccupation in virtue of her colonizing power. As far as the exigencies of the case would admit, the native population whose rights were interfered with were generously treated, and in the course of time transformed into her warmest allies. Rarely can it be said that in the march of Empire she deprived even the most savage tribe of any right or privilege for which in some form or another she did not afford adequate compensation.

To Canadians her Majesty's reign has been one of unmingled pleasure. When she ascended the throne, the two largest provinces of the Dominion, Upper and Lower Canada, were in the throes of an incipient rebellion. The Parliament of Great Britain, which had for 150 years accepted the constitutional principle of

INTRODUCTION.

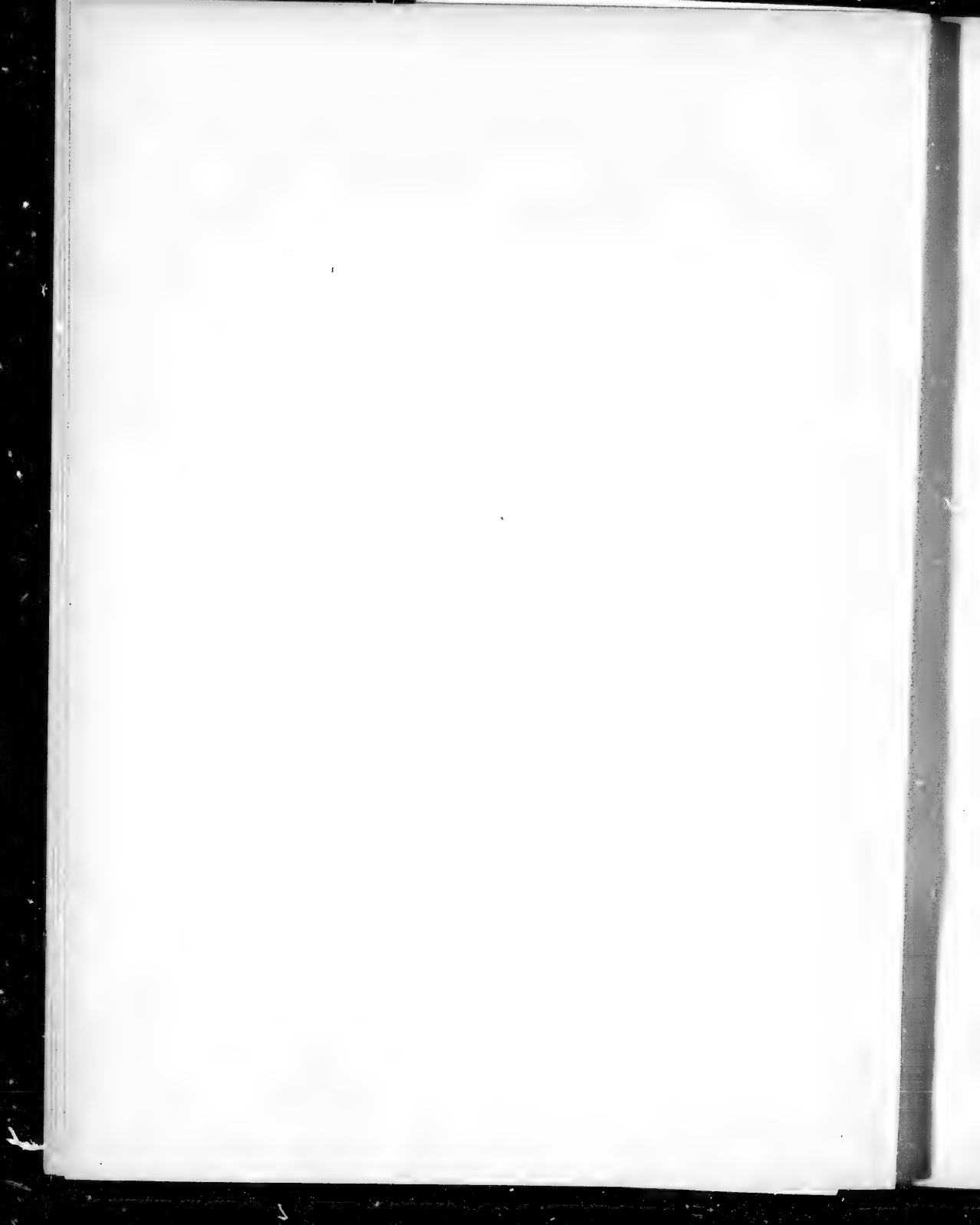
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Responsible Government, declined to concede similar privileges to the Canadian Colonists. When, however, confronted with the state of affairs which threatened the subversion of the authority of the Crown, the Colonial Office did not long hesitate to provide an adequate remedy. It is a source of pleasure to recall the fact that one of the earliest acts of her Majesty was to commission Lord Durham to report upon the discontent in the Canadian Colonies, for which the Union Act, to which her Majesty assented in 1841, was a complete and effectual remedy. It is equally gratifying to remember that from that day till now every demand made by her Canadian subjects for constitutional remedies of political grievances, or for the ratification of measures for the consolidation of British power in North America, has received her Majesty's most cordial approval. By this means the scattered forces of the different provinces have been consolidated into one great Dominion, and the personal authority of a Colonial Secretary has been exchanged for the sovereignty of a Canadian Parliament. Nowhere in her vast dominions has she a more loyal people. Nowhere can it be said that the forms of the British Constitution and the procedure of that Parliament, after which the deliberative bodies of every civilized nation in the world have been modelled, are more strictly followed, and nowhere are the words of the late poet-laureate more fully appreciated in which he says :

Her Court was pure ; her life serene ;
God gave her peace ; her land reposed ;
A thousand claims to reverence closed
In her as mother, wife and queen.

GEORGE W. ROSS.

TORONTO, May 7th, 1897.



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"YOUR MAJESTY"—JUNE 20TH, 1837.

[Immediately upon the death of William IV., the Archbishop of Canterbury and Lord Conyngham went to Kensington Palace to inform the Princess Victoria that she was Queen of England. They arrived at five o'clock in the morning, and the young Princess—she was just eighteen—came from her apartment wrapped in a dressing gown.]


VICTORIA

SIXTY YEARS A QUEEN

CHAPTER I.

The Princess Victoria.

Birth of the Future Queen—Early Training of the Young Princess—Declaration of Her Legal Majority—Death of King William IV.

EORGE THE THIRD was King of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, with the Prince of Wales as Regent, when, at Kensington Palace, on the 24th of May, 1819, a young daughter was born to His Royal Highness Edward, Duke of Kent, fourth son of the reigning monarch, and his wife, Victoria Mary Louisa. There were at the moment so many probable successors to the British throne, that few outside of the Royal circle gave much thought to the idea that the young Princess then born might one day rule as Queen of the realm.

Princess Charlotte Augusta of Wales, daughter of King George IV., was in the line of direct succession as Queen. In 1816 she married Prince Leopold George Frederick of Saxe-Cobourg, afterwards King of the Belgians; but to the grief of the nation she died in childbirth the following year. The Duke of York, a childless man, then became heir-presumptive to the throne. Next in succession stood the Duke of Clarence, third son of George III. In 1813 the Duke of Clarence married Her Serene Highness Princess Adelaide, eldest daughter of the late reigning Duke of Saxe-Meiningen. The following year his wife brought him a little daughter, who, had she lived, would have been our Queen. In 1830 the Duke became King under the title of William IV. His wife, Queen Adelaide, having no surviving children,—the two Princesses born to the Royal couple having died—people generally at once began to look upon the little daughter of the Duke of Kent as the future Queen.

Her own immediate family had, of course, this probability always in view ; and the young ALEXANDRINA VICTORIA, as the young Princess was named, was reared as became the future ruler of a great empire.

It need hardly be said that there was the usual pomp and ceremony at the christening of the young Princess, just one month after her birth. The Archbishop of Canterbury, the Most Rev. Charles Manners Sutton, officiated, the magnificent gold font, used generally at Royal christenings, being brought from the Tower for the occasion. The Prince Regent and Alexander I., the Emperor of Russia—the latter being represented by one of the Royal Dukes, as proxy—were the godfathers. The name ALEXANDRINA was bestowed on the young Princess in honor of the Russian Emperor, and the name VICTORIA was added, as being her mother's name. But our Queen's love for her mother was such that she afterwards decided that her mother's name should be second to none. So it is more by her own wish, than for State reasons, that she is known simply as VICTORIA.

The future Queen's father, the Duke of Kent, while popular with the masses, was sometimes unpopular in other circles. M. Ollier tells us he was remarkable as a generous supporter of popular government—even to an extreme bordering on democratic ideas—at a time when the Court and the ruling classes were fanatically enthusiastic on the Tory side. Tall and striking in aspect, trained to military service, irreproachable in private life, and exact in all his business habits, the Duke of Kent inherited the manly and sedate qualities of his father, George III., while superadding to them a breadth of intellect to which the King himself could advance no claim. As a commander in the British army, His Royal Highness incurred some temporary disfavour by his strictness as a disciplinarian ; but this was afterwards removed by the liberal character of his political views. At a banquet, during which he replied to the toast of " The Junior Members of the Royal Family," he said :—" I am a friend of civil and religious liberty, all the world over. I am an enemy to all religious tests. I am a supporter of a general system of education. All men are my brethren ; and I hold that power is delegated only for the benefit of the people. These are the principles of myself, and of my beloved brother, the Duke of Sussex. They are not popular principles just now ; that is, they do not conduct to place or office. *All* the members of the Royal Family do not hold the same principles. For this I do not blame them ; but we claim for ourselves the right of thinking and acting as we think best."

The Duke of Kent married in 1818, being then in his fifty-first year. During the unusually severe winter of 1819 the Duke and Duchess visited Devonshire. At Salisbury Cathedral, to which he made an excursion during extremely stormy weather, the Duke caught a severe cold, which, after his return to Sidmouth, became serious, owing, it would seem, to neglect and imprudence. According to the medical custom of those days, the patient was copiously bled, and not improbably owed his death to the exhaustion thus occasioned. He died on the 23rd of January, 1820. It is said his income was restricted within very narrow limits by Parliament, and as he was of a naturally liberal disposition, and was



Kensington Palace, where the Queen was born.

ever ready to listen to all appeals, he left his wife and daughter totally unprovided for. We are told that in speaking on this subject afterwards to Lord Melbourne, the Queen said that she considered it a sacred duty to pay her father's debts, and that she was not satisfied until this had been done. Soon after the Duke's death, Prince Leopold, a brother of the Duchess, accompanied the bereaved widow and the infant Princess to London, where addresses of condolence were voted by both Houses of Parliament.

Victoria Mary Louisa, the Queen's mother, was a daughter of His Serene Highness Francis, Duke of Saxe-Cobourg-Saalfeld. In 1802 she had married Charles

Louis, the then reigning Prince of Leiningen, by whom she had two children—the Princess Feodora and the Prince of Leiningen. Her husband died in 1814. In 1818, the Princess, then in her thirty-first year, married the Duke of Kent, and was again left a widow after a short, but happy period—not quite two years—of married life.

The Princess had been made the guardian of her young children on the death of her first husband, and the ruler of their territory till they came of age. These duties she had performed in a manner the most exemplary. She afterwards showed equal good sense when, as the Duchess of Kent, she undertook the oversight of the education of her daughter, the Princess Victoria. The child from her earliest years was taught to rely on exercise and temperance as the best promoters of health ; to devote a reasonable amount of time to riding and sailing ; to be economical, yet charitable ; and, while observing a courteous demeanour towards her inferiors, to keep aloof from the evil influences of parasites.

In early years, it was rather the moral than the mental nature of the Princess that was cultivated. The Dowager-Duchess of Cobourg wisely wrote to the Duchess in 1823, that it would be better not to force book-knowledge too soon on one so young, and this advice appears to have been followed.

There are many anecdotes of the Princess Victoria in her younger days. Eminent people who were privileged to call upon the Duchess of Kent have left their impressions of the young Princess. William Wilberforce, the statesman and philanthropist, then in his sixty-second year, writing in 1820 to Hannah More, of a visit he had paid to the Duchess of Kent, said : “ She received me with her fine, animated child on the floor by her side, busy with its playthings, of which I soon became one.” Surely here was a sight worth going far to see !

Miss Jane Porter, the authoress of that perennially popular story “ The Scottish Chiefs,” who frequently attended the same church as the young Princess, tells us that she was a beautiful child, with a cherubic form of features, clustered round by glossy fair ringlets ; her complexion was remarkably transparent, with a soft but often heightening tinge of the sweet blush-rose upon her cheeks, that imparted a peculiar brilliancy to her clear blue eyes. Whenever she met any strangers on her usual paths, she always seemed by the quickness of her glance to inquire who and what they were. The intelligence of her countenance was extraordinary at her very early age, but might easily be accounted for on perceiving the extraordinary intelligence of her mind.

The Earl of Albermarle, writing in 1826, records that of a morning he frequently watched the movements of a bright, pretty little girl, seven years of age. She was in the habit of watering the plants under the window. "It was amusing," continues the Earl, "to see how impartially she divided the contents of the watering-pot between the flowers and her own little feet." That young lady was the Princess Victoria.

Sir Walter Scott's diary of May 19, 1828, has this entry :—"Dined with the Duchess of Kent. Was very kindly received by Prince Leopold, and presented to the little Princess Victoria, the heir-apparent to the Crown, as things now stand. . . . This little lady is educating with much care, and watched so closely that no busy maid has a moment to whisper, 'You are heir of England.' I suspect if we could dissect the little heart we should find some pigeon or other bird of the air had carried the matter." Yet, as we shall see later, the great novelist was mistaken on this point.

The readiness to admit a fault was amusingly shown by a little incident which occurred during a visit to the seat of Earl Fitzwilliam. The royal party were walking in the grounds, when the Princess ran on in advance. One of the under-gardeners pointed out that, owing to recent heavy rains, a certain walk was very slippery, or, as he expressed it, using a local term, "very slape." "Slape ! slape !" exclaimed the Princess, in the style of quick reiteration which characterized the utterance of her grandfather, George III.; "And pray what is slape?" The requisite information was given, but the little lady proceeded down the path despite all warning, and speedily fell to the ground. Seeing what had happened Earl Fitzwilliam called out, "Now your Royal Highness has an explanation of the term 'slape,' both theoretically and practically." "Yes, my lord," she replied, "I think I have. I shall never forget the word 'slape,'" Another time she persisted in playing with a dog against which she had been cautioned. The animal made a snap at her hand, and when her cautioner expressed his fears that she had been bitten, she replied, "Oh, thank you ! thank you ! You're right, and I am wrong ; but he didn't bite me—he only warned me. I shall be careful in future."

It was a rule of the Princess' young days that she should never buy anything on credit. One day, when she was but eight years old, she had emptied her purse of its last sixpence in making purchases at the Tunbridge Wells bazaar. There was, however, still one particular doll she would fain carry off. The salesman, of

course, was only too willing to send it with the other purchases, and have it paid for later on. But the Baroness Lehzen said, "No; the Princess never buys anything without paying for it at the time." The doll was thereupon reserved until the Princess had the money to call and pay for it. In a few days the little Princess, having received a fresh allowance of pocket money, returned to the bazaar and secured her much-coveted toy. As she was about to leave the shop door a poor, miserable looking object of a man met her eye. He was standing but a couple of feet away, and seemed as though he were going to speak to her, attracted doubtless by the innocent kindness of her expression, and the tenderness of her blue eyes. But, though his lips moved, no sound came from them. He stood aside to let her pass—a mute, agonized appeal in his sunken cheeks and quivering chin. "Did you wish to speak to me?" asked the little lady, staying her steps. Encouraged by her winning voice, the poor tramp—for such he was—said in trembling accents: "I am very hungry. I would not ask for help if I were not ready to sink with hunger." He looked famine from his eyes. "I am so sorry; I have no money, or else——" His lips trembled forth a humble "Thank you, lady," then he shuffled on his way, hunger impersonate. "Stay!" murmured the little owner of the new doll. There was a quiver in her childish voice, and a moisture in her eyes as she spoke. "Wait a minute, please." Re-entering the shop, she astonished the salesman by asking him to keep the doll a few days longer and return the money to her. This of course was done, and the little lady, hurrying out of the shop, placed the whole of the money in the hands of the starving man. He was like one thunderstruck. Was it any wonder that he murmured in a low tone, though loud enough to reach her ear: "If the Almighty made you a queen, it would not be more than your goodness deserves."

As the years advanced the young Princess was placed in charge of experienced instructors and was well grounded in languages, music, and other polite accomplishments. The future Queen developed at an early age a great love for music—a love for that noble art which has distinguished her through life.

Parliament made suitable provision for her maintenance in a manner befitting her exalted station. An additional grant of £6,000 a year was made to the Duchess of Kent, which was supplemented a few years later by a further grant of £10,000 a year.

In the meantime events had transpired which vitally affected the young

Princess. The Prince of Wales had ascended the throne as George IV. At his death, in 1830, he was succeeded by the Duke of Clarence, under the title of William IV. The death of the Duke of York on the 5th of January, 1827, and



H.R.H. PRINCE EDWARD.

(*The Queen's Father*) At the Age of 29.

Lieut.-General Commanding at Halifax, N.S., Nov. 1795.

the accession of the Duke of Clarence to the throne as William IV., on the 26th of June, 1830, placed the Princess Victoria in the direct line of succession to the British Crown. It then became evident that Parliament must provide against

possible contingencies, and accordingly a Regency Bill was passed. That Bill provided that Queen Adelaide, the spouse of King William IV., in the event of her giving birth to a posthumous child, should be guardian of such child during its minority, and also Regent of the realm. If such an event did not occur the Duchess of Kent was to be Regent during the minority of her daughter, the young Princess Victoria, who was not to marry while a minor without the consent of the King, or, if he died, without the consent of both Houses of Parliament.

In order to escape the excitements of the Court, which would certainly have severely tried the strength of one so young, the Princess Victoria was kept quite sequestered. She was thus enabled to pursue her studies with much better effect. Another reason assigned for keeping the Princess in comparative seclusion was that the Court of William IV., though better than that of his brother, was not well suited to a young girl whose mother considered her purity more than anything else.

It is said that previous to this time the future queen had not been allowed to hear of the exalted position she might one day occupy. But it was now desirable that she should be made aware of the fact. A little device was resorted to in order that this might be done quietly, yet effectually.

A genealogical table was placed in a historical book which she was reading. When she discovered it, she exclaimed, "I never saw that before." "It was not thought necessary that you should, Princess," was the reply of the governess. The Princess examined it carefully, and then said—somewhat timidly and thoughtfully, we may well imagine—"I see that I am nearer the throne than I thought." "It is so, Madam," was the reply. And then with quaint earnestness the Princess uttered her thoughts aloud: "Now many a child would boast, not knowing the difficulty. There is much splendour, but there is more responsibility." "And then with charming seriousness, her young heart quite full," the Baroness Lehzen continues, "the Princess having lifted up the forefinger of her right hand while she spoke, gave me that little hand, saying, 'I will be good. I understand now why you urged me so much to learn, even Latin. My aunts Augusta and Mary never did; but you told me Latin is the foundation of English Grammar, and of all the elegant expressions, and I learned it as you wished it; but I understand all better now.' And the Princess gave me her hand, repeating, 'I will be good.'" "I then said," continues her governess, "but your Aunt

Adelaide is still young and may have children, and of course they would ascend the throne after their father, William IV., and not you, Princess." The Princess answered: "And if it were so, I should never feel disappointed, for I know by the love Aunt Adelaide bears me how fond she is of children."

In 1834, while sojourning at Tunbridge Wells, she heard that the husband of an actress employed at the town theatre had died in great poverty, with his wife



Princess Victoria at the Age of Two Years, and her Mother, the Duchess of Kent.

on the eve of her confinement. Sympathising with the poor wife in her distress, the Princess obtained £10 from her mother, added an equal sum from her own resources, and personally carried the amount to the sufferer. After the accession of her Majesty to the throne she conferred on the actress an annuity of £40 for the remainder of her life.

In 1832, a tour of England was undertaken by the Duchess of Kent, accompanied by the Princess Victoria. During this tour the royal party visited the

cotton mills of the Messrs. Strutt, at Belper, in Derbyshire. By means of a most ingenious model, Mr. James Strutt explained to the Princess the various processes of cotton-spinning, and a great impression was produced by this exposition of a most important manufacture. In commemoration, no doubt, of that visit, the Queen, in 1856, conferred the dignity of a peerage, with the title of Baron Belper, on Edward, the son of Mr. James Strutt, who had conducted her over their great cotton mills four-and-twenty years previously.

In 1833, while the Duchess of Kent and the Princess were cruising in the Channel on board their yacht, the *Emerald*, the Princess had a narrow escape from a serious accident—perhaps from sudden death. The Royal yacht collided with the *Active* hulk, the collision being so violent that the top-mast of the Royal yacht was hurled to the very spot on the deck on which the Princess was at the time standing. Mr. Saunders, the pilot, who had been watching the Princess, saw her danger. Without an instant's hesitation he sprang towards her, and lifted her to one side just as the mast fell with a crash on the very spot on which she had been standing a moment before. The rescuer was, of course, overwhelmed with thanks, and, at a later date, he was called to Court to pay his respects to the Queen, and to be rewarded by being promoted to the rank of master.

George Augustus Sala records a pleasing instance of the Queen's favour. In the early years of the Queen's reign, Mr. Sala's mother gave concerts in London. Every year, prior to the performance, a programme printed on white satin and edged with Brussels lace, used to be sent to the Queen at Buckingham Palace. The offering was invariably acknowledged by a cheque for ten guineas.

The young Princess would appear to have early developed a predilection for home-manufactured goods, as it is said that on her appearance at Court on the occasion of the celebration of the birthday of Queen Adelaide, on the 24th of February, 1831, her dress was made entirely of articles manufactured in the United Kingdom. Even in those early days her Majesty was evidently opposed to the "Made in Germany" fad, which has had such a run in the United Kingdom for too long a period.

Nathaniel Parker Willis, the United States author, who at the time was foreign editor and correspondent of the *New York Mirror*, gives us the following picture of the Princess Victoria, as he saw her at the celebrated Ascot races in 1835: "In one of the intervals I walked under the King's stand, and saw Her

Majesty the Queen and the young Princess Victoria very distinctly. They were leaning over the railing, listening to a ballad singer, and seeming as much interested and amused as any simple country folk could be. The Queen is undoubtedly the plainest woman in her dominions; but the Princess is much better looking than any picture of her in the shops, and, for the heir to such a crown as that of England, unnecessarily pretty and interesting. She will be sold, poor thing!



Princess Victoria and her Mother breakfasting in the Garden.

bartered away by those great dealers in royal hearts whose grand calculations will not be much consolation to her if she happens to have a taste of her own."

Poor Willis! Could he have lived to see the numbers of his rich countrywomen who in recent years have given their millions in exchange for a British or other foreign title, he would have regretted this most uncalled-for reference to

the love affairs of a British Princess. He would have seen also that this British Princess developed a taste of her own in her love affairs, as well as in other matters. Instead of being "sold," as he offensively puts it, he would have seen her married to the man of her own choosing. This incident furnishes an excellent illustration of the mistaken prejudices of even broad-minded Americans when writing of Royalties and their doings.

On August 30th, 1835, the Princess was confirmed by the Most Rev. William Howley, Archbishop of Canterbury, assisted by the Right Rev. Charles J. Blomfield, Bishop of London, the solemn ceremony taking place in the Chapel Royal, St. James'.

On the 24th of May, 1837, the Princess completed her eighteenth year, and in accordance with the provisions of an Act of Parliament, she was thereupon declared of age. This step was taken so that in case of the King's death no Regency would be required. There were great rejoicings everywhere. The day was kept as a public holiday throughout the Kingdom. Kensington was especially festive, when for the first time the Princess took precedence of her mother, and occupied the central chair of State.

The King was unwell, so neither he nor the Queen were present on the occasion. The King, however, as an expression of his good will, sent her, as a present, a magnificent grand pianoforte. All London was in holiday attire. Everybody had a holiday, from the boys at school to the members of the Houses of Parliament. The bells throughout the city were ringing, flags were flying, and all the public buildings and many of the private mansions were illuminated. Congratulatory addresses came from many quarters. In reply to one from the London civic authorities, the Duchess of Kent, after referring to the sad loss she had sustained in the death of her husband, and to the way in which she had educated her daughter, went on to say: "I have in times of great difficulty avoided all connection with any party in the State; but if I have done so, I have never ceased to impress on my daughter her duties, so as to gain by her conduct the respect and affection of the people. This I have taught her should be her first earthly duty as a constitutional Sovereign. The Princess has arrived at that age which now justifies my expressing my confident expectation that she will be found competent to execute the sacred trust which may be reposed in her; for communicating as she does with all classes of society, she cannot but perceive that the greater the diffusion of religious knowledge and the love of

freedom in a country, the more orderly, industrious, and wealthy is its population, and that with the desire to preserve the constitutional prerogatives of the Crown ought to be co-ordinate the protection of the liberties of the people."

An address was also presented to the Princess, who returned thanks by simply saying, "I am very thankful for your kindness, and my mother has expressed all my feelings."

In less than a month from that day King William IV. was dead, and the Princess Victoria was called upon to assume the duties and responsibilities of Queen of the realm.



THE GREAT SEAL OF GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND.

CHAPTER II.

Queen Victoria.

Proclamation of the Queen—Her First Appearance in Public after Her Accession—Congratulations from Prince Albert—The Coronation at Westminster Abbey—The Queen's first Parliament.

WILLIAM IV., the "good old sailor King," had gained a place in the hearts of the people. Sometimes weak, sometimes obstinate, deficient in penetration and judgment, he was, nevertheless, manly, sincere, honest and straightforward. Of political dexterity and artifice he was totally incapable. His virtues predominated over his talents. If we judge him, not by the reign that came after him but by the reigns that went before him, we must admit that, on the whole, he was better than his education, his early opportunities, and his early promise. What the Queen said of him many years later was undoubtedly true: "Whatever his faults may have been, it was well known that he was not only zealous but most conscientious in the discharge of his duties as King. He had a truly kind heart, and was most anxious to do what was right. This was the character given of him to the Queen by Lord Melbourne, and by others who served him; and of his kindness to herself, and his wish that she should be duly prepared for the duties to which she was so early called, the Queen can only speak in terms of affectionate gratitude."

Immediately upon the death of the King, the Marquis of Conyngham, Lord Chamberlain, accompanied by the Archbishop of Canterbury, Dr. Howley, posted away to call Victoria to the throne of her ancestors. At five o'clock on the morning of June 20th they reached Kensington Palace. Reading Miss Wynn's "Diary of a Lady of Quality," we can almost see what took place.

It was two hours after midnight when they started, and they did not reach Kensington till five o'clock in the morning.

"They knocked, they rang, they thumped for a considerable time before they could rouse the porter at the gate; they were again kept waiting in the courtyard; then turned into one of the lower rooms, where they seemed to be forgotten by everybody. They rang the bell and desired that the attendant of the Princess Victoria might be sent to inform her Royal Highness that they re-



QUEEN VICTORIA AND THE PEEL MINISTRY OF 1841.

quested an audience on business of importance. After another delay and another ringing to inquire the cause, the attendant was summoned, who stated that the Princess was in such a sweet sleep that she could not venture to disturb her. Then they said, 'We are come on business of State to the *Queen*, and even her sleep must give way to that.' It did; and to prove that she did not keep them waiting, in a few minutes she came into the room in a loose white night-gown and shawl, her night-cap thrown off and her hair falling upon her shoulders, her feet in slippers, tears in her eyes, but perfectly collected and dignified."

It has been said that the piquant account by Miss Wynn should hardly be accepted as historically true. It is, however, interesting, and, no doubt true, so far as the main facts are concerned.

In his clever, bilious memoirs Greville says: "Conyngham, in a few words, told her their errand, and as soon as he uttered the words 'Your Majesty,' she instantly put out her hand to him, intimating that he was to kiss hands before he proceeded. He dropped on one knee, kissed her hand and then went on to tell her of the late King's death. She presented her hand to the Archbishop, who likewise kissed it, and, when he had done so, addressed to her a sort of pastoral charge, which she received graciously and then retired."

The Prime Minister, Lord Melbourne, was sent for, and a meeting of the Privy Council summoned for eleven o'clock.

The first act of her Majesty, after the announcement of her accession, was to write to her aunt, Queen Adelaide, a letter of condolence, begging her to remain at Windsor as long as she pleased. She addressed it "To Her Majesty the Queen" at Windsor Castle. She was told that she ought to write "To Her Majesty the Queen-Dowager;" but she answered, "I am aware of that, but I will not be the first to remind her of her altered position."

At the appointed hour the Queen held her first Privy Council, conducting herself with such imperial maiden grace as to excite even Greville's admiration.

"Never," he writes, "was anything like the first impression she produced, or the chorus of praise which is raised about her manner and behaviour, and certainly not without justice. It was very extraordinary, and something far beyond what was looked for. Her extreme youth and inexperience, and the ignorance of the world concerning her, naturally excited intense curiosity to see how she would act on this trying occasion, and there was a considerable assemblage at the Palace notwithstanding the short notice that was given. The first thing to be done was

to teach her her lesson, which for this purpose Melbourne had himself to learn. I gave him the Council papers, and explained all that was to be done, and he went and explained all this to her. He asked her if she would enter the room accompanied by the great officers of State, but she said she would come in alone. When the lords were assembled, the Lord President (Lord Lansdowne) informed them of the King's death, and suggested, as they were so numerous, that a few should repair to the presence of the Queen and inform her of the event, and that their lordships were assembled in consequence; and accordingly the two Royal Dukes (the Duke of Cumberland, by the death of William IV., King of Hanover) and the Duke of Sussex (the Duke of Cambridge was absent in Hanover), and the two Archbishops, were deputed; the Chancellor and Melbourne went with them. The Queen received them in an adjoining room alone. When they returned the proclamation was read:—

"Whereas it has pleased Almighty God to call to His mercy our late Sovereign Lord, King William IV., of blessed and glorious memory, by whose decease the Imperial Crown of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland is solely and rightfully come to the high and mighty Princess Alexandrina Victoria, saving the rights of any issue of his late Majesty King William the Fourth, which may be born of his late Majesty's consort. We, therefore, the Lords Spiritual and Temporal of this realm being here assembled with those of his late Majesty's Privy Council, with numbers of others, principal gentlemen of quality, with the Lord Mayor, Aldermen and citizens of London, do now hereby, with one voice and consent of tongue and heart, publish and proclaim, that the high and mighty Princess Alexandrina Victoria is now, by the death of our late Sovereign of happy memory, become our only lawful and rightful Liege Lady, Victoria, by the Grace of God, Queen of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, Defender of the Faith (saving as aforesaid), to whom (saving as aforesaid) we do acknowledge all faith and constant obedience, with all humble and hearty affection, beseeching God, by whom kings and queens do reign, to bless the royal Princess Victoria with long and happy years to reign over us. Given at the Court of Kensington this 20th day of June, 1837. God save the Queen."

This proclamation having been signed by the Lords of the Privy Council, the doors were thrown open and the Queen entered, dressed in mourning. Her two uncles, the Duke of Cumberland, now King of Hanover, and the Duke of Sussex conducted her to the extemporised throne. She bowed to the lords as she took

her seat, and at once began to read, in a clear and distinct voice, without any trace of embarrassment, the following speech :—

“The severe and afflicting loss which the nation has sustained by the death of His Majesty, my beloved uncle, has devolved upon me the duty of administering the government of this empire. This awful responsibility is imposed on me so suddenly, and at so early a period of my life, that I should feel myself utterly oppressed by the burden were I not sustained by the hope that Divine Providence, which has called me to this work, will give me strength for the performance of it, and that I shall find, in the purity of my intentions and in my zeal for the public welfare, that support and those resources which usually belong to a more mature age and to long experience.

“I place my firm reliance upon the wisdom of Parliament and upon the loyalty and affection of my people. I esteem it also a peculiar advantage that I succeed to a Sovereign whose constant regard for the rights and liberties of his subjects, and whose desire to promote the amelioration of the laws and institutions of the country, have rendered his name the object of general attachment and veneration.

“Educated in England, under the tender and affectionate care of a most affectionate mother, I have learned from my infancy to respect and love the constitution of my native country. It will be my unceasing study to maintain the reformed religion as by law established, securing, at the same time, to all, the full enjoyment of religious liberty; and I shall steadily protect the rights, and promote to the utmost of my power the happiness and welfare of all classes of my subjects.”

Lord Beaconsfield writes: “The prelates and chief men of her realm then advanced to the throne, and kneeling before her pledged their troth, and took the sacred oath of allegiance and supremacy—allegiance to one who rules over the land that the great Macedonian could not conquer; and over a continent of which even Columbus never dreamed; to the queen of every sea, and of nations of every zone. Fair and serene, she has the blood and beauty of the Saxon. Will it be her proud destiny at length to bear relief to suffering millions, and with that soft hand which might inspire troubadour and guerdon knights, to break the last link in Saxon thralldom?”

After she had read her speech, and taken and signed the oath for the security of the Church of Scotland, administered by the Archbishop of Canterbury, the Privy Counsellors were sworn, the two Royal Dukes first, by themselves; and as

these two old men, her uncles, knelt before her, swearing allegiance and kissing her hand, "I saw her," says Greville, "blush up to the eyes, as if she felt the contrast between their civil and their natural relations, and this was the only sign of emotion which she evinced. Her manner to them was very graceful and engaging; she kissed them both, and rose from her chair, and moved towards the Duke of Sussex, who was farthest from her, and too infirm to reach her.

"She seemed rather bewildered at the multitude of men who were sworn, and who came one after another to kiss her hand, but she did not speak to anybody,



WESTMINSTER ABBEY.

nor did she make the slightest difference in her manner, or show any in her countenance, to any individual of rank, station, or party.

"I particularly watched her when Melbourne and the Ministers and the Duke of Wellington and Peel approached her.

"She went through the whole ceremony—occasionally looking at Melbourne for instruction when she had any doubt what to do, which hardly ever occurred—with perfect calmness and self-possession, but at the same time with a graceful modesty and propriety particularly interesting and ingratiating."

After the Council the Cabinet Ministers rendered up to the Queen the seals of their offices, which her Majesty graciously returned, and they kissed hands on their reappointment.

Throughout the whole of the 20th the great bells of St. Paul's tolled out the solemn news that the King was dead. Everywhere the flags were at half-mast high. Many of the shops were shut. Citizens met and in grave groups discussed the news, and paid tributes of respect to the character of the dead monarch.

On the 21st the new Sovereign was proclaimed under the title of "Alexandrina Victoria." The first name, however, has not been officially used since. The appearance of the Queen at one of the windows of St. James' Palace was greeted with immense enthusiasm by a vast crowd of people who had assembled to hear the Proclamation read, but who did not anticipate that the Sovereign would present herself. At ten o'clock the guns in the Park fired a salute, and immediately afterwards her Majesty stood conspicuously before her subjects. Dressed very simply in deep mourning, her fair hair and clear complexion came out the more effectively for their black surroundings. With her face bathed in tears, she listened to the reading of the Proclamation, supported by Lord Melbourne on the one side and by Lord Lansdowne on the other, both dressed in Court costume; while close at hand was the Duchess of Kent. The court yard of the palace was filled with a brilliant assemblage of high functionaries, consisting of Garter King-at-Arms, heralds and pursuivants, officers-of-arms on horseback, sergeants-at-arms, the sergeant-trumpeter, the Knights-Marshal and their men, the Duke of Norfolk as Earl-Marshal of England, and others—all clad in the splendid and picturesque dresses and insignia of their offices. At the conclusion of the Proclamation, the Queen, throwing herself into the arms of her mother, gave free vent to her feelings, while the band played the National Anthem, the Park and Tower guns discharged their salvos, and the spectators burst into repeated acclamations.

Among the letters of congratulation was one prized above all by her Majesty. It came from Prince Albert, then a student at Bonn.

"Now," he wrote, "you are Queen of the mightiest land of Europe; in your hand lies the happiness of millions. May Heaven assist you and strengthen you with its strength in that high but difficult task. I hope that your reign may be long, happy, and glorious, and that your efforts may be rewarded by the thankfulness and love of your subjects."

That hope has been fulfilled.

Mr. Greville gives us the best description of the conduct of the young Queen immediately after her accession. She occupied at once in Kensington Palace a separate range of apartments from her mother—whose influence had been, in some degree, foolishly dreaded by the nation—and naturally the Duchess, who must long have looked forward to occupying the place of the Queen-Mother of Britain, was disappointed, and perhaps a little embittered; but her Majesty's behaviour in all private respects was most tender, affectionate, and filial. Indeed, in all that occurred at this time those who knew the secret springs of the Queen's actions only found cause for approval and admiration.

The only person constantly with the Queen, Mr. Greville tells us, was the Baroness Lehzen; but she always retired by one door as Ministers entered by the other, and was not present when State business was dispatched.

The Queen never decided on any subject without taking time for reflection. At first it was thought that she refused an immediate answer because she consulted Lord Melbourne about everything; but this was a mistake. When he also proposed anything she used to answer that she would think it over, and tell him what her opinion was the next day.

Her Majesty surprised him by her thoughtfulness for others. When she was going to Windsor to visit the Queen-Dowager, the Premier was astonished to hear her direct that the flag on Windsor Castle, which was half-mast high from respect to the late King's memory, should not be drawn up on her arrival, and that orders must be sent to that effect. Melbourne had never thought of the flag; but the Queen divined by instinct what her "Aunt Adelaide's" feelings would be, and carefully spared them.

The interview between the Queens was affectionate; both were much affected. The young Queen readily acceded to the widowed Queen's wishes to provide for the personal attendants of the late monarch; she also provided generously for the family of the Sailor King.

Queen Victoria and her mother left Kensington on the 13th of July, and proceeded to Buckingham Palace, a residence which George IV. had favoured, and which William IV. detested and forsook. A levee was held shortly after her Majesty's arrival. On this occasion the Queen presented a striking appearance, her head glittering with diamonds, and her breast covered with the insignia of the Garter and her other Orders. More important business, however, was approaching. On the 17th of the month the Queen went in State to the House

of Lords to dissolve Parliament. Addressing both Houses, her Majesty said :—
“I have been anxious to seize the first opportunity of meeting you, in order that I might repeat in person my cordial thanks for your condolence upon the death of his late Majesty, and for the expression of attachment and affection with which you congratulated me upon my accession to the throne. I am very desirous of renewing the assurances of my determination to maintain the Protestant religion as established by law ; to secure to all the free exercise of the rights of conscience ; to protect the liberties, and to promote the welfare, of all classes of the community. I rejoice that, in ascending the throne, I find the country in amity with all foreign Powers ; and, while I faithfully perform the engagements of the Crown, and carefully watch over the interests of my subjects, it will be the constant object of my solicitude to maintain the blessings of peace.” After alluding to the chief events of the session, the Queen concluded by observing :—
“I ascend the throne with a deep sense of the responsibility which is imposed upon me ; but I am supported by the consciousness of my own right intentions, and by my dependence upon the protection of Almighty God. It will be my care to strengthen our institutions, civil and ecclesiastical, by discreet improvement, wherever improvement is required, and to do all in my power to compose and allay animosity and discord. Acting upon these principles, I shall on all occasions look with confidence to the wisdom of Parliament and the affection of my people, which form the true support of the dignity of the Crown and ensure the stability of the Constitution.”

Fanny Kemble, the accomplished actress, thus describes the scene : “The Queen was not handsome, but very pretty, and the singularity of her great position lent a sentimental and poetical charm to her youthful face and figure. The serene, serious sweetness of her candid brow and clear, soft eyes gave dignity to the girlish countenance, while the want of height only added to the effect of extreme youth, of the round but slender person, and gracefully-moulded hands and arms. The Queen’s voice was exquisite, nor have I ever heard any spoken words more musical in their gentle distinctness than ‘My Lords and gentlemen,’ which broke the breathless silence of the illustrious assembly, whose gaze was riveted on that fair flower of royalty. The enunciation was as perfect as the intonation was melodious, and I think it is impossible to hear a more excellent utterance than that of the Queen’s English by the English Queen.”

In August the Queen went to Windsor. While here her Majesty for the first

time reviewed her troops, charming them by her good horsemanship and by the compliment of appearing in semi-military dress.

About this time the young Queen was first called on to exercise her power of life or death. The Duke of Wellington brought to her Majesty a court-martial death-warrant for signature. "She shrank from the dreadful task," says Miss Greenwood, "and with tears in her eyes asked, 'Have you nothing to say on behalf of this man?'"



The Queen as she appeared at the Review of Troops,
at Windsor, Sept. 28th, 1837.

"'Nothing; he has deserted three times,' replied the Iron Duke.

"'Oh, your Grace, think again!'"

"'Well, your Majesty, he certainly is a bad soldier, but there was somebody who spoke as to his good character. He may be a good fellow in private life.'

"'Oh, thank you!' exclaimed the Queen, as she dashed off the word 'Pardoned' on the awful parchment, and wrote beneath it her beautiful signature."

To relieve her from this painful duty in the future, Parliament enacted that death-warrants should be signed by royal commission.

On the 9th of November, the Queen delighted London by going to a banquet in the City. Although the day was wet and dreary the streets and the windows were crowded by her Majesty's subjects, all eager to gaze on their youthful Sovereign.

At Temple Bar the Lord Mayor delivered the keys of the City to her Majesty, who at once returned them. In the open space before St. Paul's Cathedral hustings had been erected on which were stationed the Liverymen of the City Companies and the scholars of Christ's Hospital. One of the boys presented an address to the Queen, and all then sang the National Anthem.

A magnificent banquet in the Guildhall followed. At night the city was illuminated.

Among the honors conferred was one which was received with particular favor—the knighthood given to Sheriff Montefiore, the first Jew who ever received such an honor from a British sovereign.

Mrs. Newton Crosland, the novelist and poet, writes in regard to this reception: "I well remember seeing the young Queen on her way to dine with the Lord Mayor, on the 9th of November, 1837, the year of her accession. The crowd was so great that there were constant stoppages, and, luckily for me, one of them occurred just under the window of a house in the Strand, where I was a spectator. I shall never forget the appearance of the maiden Sovereign. Youthful as she was, she looked every inch a queen. Seated with their backs to the horses were a lady and gentleman in full Court-dress—the Duchess of Sutherland, Mistress of the Robes, and the Earl of Albemarle, Master of the Horse), and in the centre of the opposite seat, a little raised, was the Queen. All I saw of her dress was a mass of pink, satin and swansdown. I think she wore a large cape or wrap of these materials. The swansdown encircled her throat, from which arose the fair young face—the blue eyes beaming with goodness and intelligence—the rose-bloom of girlhood on her cheeks, and her soft, light-brown hair, on which gleamed a circlet of diamonds, braided as it is seen in the early portraits. Her small white-gloved hands were reposing easily in her lap."

On the 20th of November the Queen went in State, through streets even more crowded than on her first visit to the City, to open the first Parliament of her reign. That session the Queen's income was fixed at three hundred and eighty-five thousand pounds a year. Thirty thousand pounds a year was also settled on the Duchess of Kent.

The coronation of the young Queen had been looked forward to with eagerness by the whole country. The City of London, especially, was in a state of

enthusiastic expectancy. Thousands had flocked in from all parts of the world.

The population was more than doubled. The confusion, the crowds, the noise were indescribable. Not a mob here and there, but the town all mob, thronging, bustling, gaping and gazing at everything, at anything, at nothing. The Park was one vast encampment, with banners floating on the tops of the tents, and still the roads were covered, the railroads loaded with arriving multitudes. Never was seen before in England such a scene as the streets presented on that 28th of June, 1838.

Every place along the line, from Hyde Park Corner to the Abbey, was filled with galleries or scaffolding; every window, roof, and balcony banked with seats and thronged.

The day was ushered in by salvos of artillery from the Tower. From an early hour the streets were thronged with people, all in holiday attire, while the roads were soon almost blocked with streams of carriages pouring in from the surrounding country districts. Sharp at ten o'clock the raising of the Royal Standard over the Marble Arch, simultaneously with a salute from the Park guns, announced that the Queen had entered her carriage at the Palace. The procession then moved forward, being greeted at every point of vantage with lusty cheers from mighty crowds of loyal subjects. The official programme of the Coronation Procession is reproduced on the following pages. A perusal of this programme will give an excellent idea of the length and brilliancy of the procession. The dresses of many in the procession were superb; the varied and picturesque costumes of the Foreign Ambassadors and their suites being particularly noticeable. Even the Turkish Ambassador, accustomed to the wondrous spectacle of Oriental court life, was dazzled and bewildered at the scene, both in and out of the Abbey.

It is estimated that not less than half a million people lined the route of the procession—a vast number for those days. The Earl of Malmesbury has an interesting reference to the event in his "Memoirs:"—"The coronation took place to-day. The Government, or rather Lord John Russell, had given no orders to the police to make carriages keep the line, and there was in consequence a good deal of confusion. But the day was so very fine that we were in no hurry to arrive. The crowd was in perfect good humor, and behaved very quietly. We reached the Board of Trade at ten, and about eleven the procession appeared in sight. It was a magnificent show, though we have to thank the foreign Ambassadors for a great part of its splendor, as without them the procession would have



CORONATION.

State Procession from the Queen's Palace to Westminster Abbey,

WITH THE NAMES OF THE PARTIES IN EACH CARRIAGE.

Trumpeters.

A squadron of Life Guards, under the direction of one of the Queen's Equerries and two Assistants. Carriages of the Foreign Resident Ambassadors and Ministers, in the following order :

1. The Charge d'Affairs of Mexico..... M. de Yturbe.
2. The Charge d'Affairs of Portugal..... Chev. de Carvalho.
3. The Charge d'Affairs of Sweden..... Count Bjornstjerna.
4. The Saxon Minister..... M. de Gersdorff.
5. The Hanoverian Minister..... Baron Munchausen.
6. The Greek Minister..... Prince Soutzo.
7. The Sardinian Minister..... Count de Pollon.
8. The Spanish Minister..... Don Manuel M. de Aguilar.
9. The Minister of the United States..... A. Stephenson, Esq.
10. The Minister of the Netherlands..... M. Dedel.
11. The Brazilian Minister..... M. Galvao.
12. The Bavarian Minister..... Baron de Setto.
13. The Danish Minister..... Baron Blome.
14. The Belgian Minister..... M. Van de Weyer.
15. The Wurtemberg Minister..... Count de Mandelsloh.
16. The Prussian Minister..... Baron Bulow.

The Carriages of the Ambassadors Extraordinary.

1. The Turkish Ambassador..... Ahmed Fettij Pasha.
2. The French Ambassador..... Duke de Dalmatie.
3. The Portuguese Ambassador..... Duke de Palmella.
4. The Swedish Ambassador..... The Count Lowenhjeim.
5. The Sardinian Ambassador..... Marquess Brignole Sale.
6. The Hanoverian Ambassador..... Count Alten.
7. The Prussian Ambassador..... Prince Putbus.
8. The Spanish Ambassador..... Marquess Miraflores.
9. The Netherlands Ambassador..... Baron de Capellan.
10. The Austrian Ambassador..... Prince Schwartzenberg.
11. The Russian Ambassador..... Count Strogonoff.
12. The Belgian Ambassador..... Prince de Ligne.
13. The Sicilian Ambassador..... Count Ludolf.
14. The Turkish Resident Ambassador..... Sarem Effendi.
15. The French Resident Ambassador..... Count Sebastiani.
16. The Russian Resident Ambassador..... Count Pozzo di Borgo.
17. The Austrian Resident Ambassador..... Prince Esterhazy.

Mounted Band of a Regiment of Household Brigade.

Detachment of Life Guards commanded by an Equerry and two Assistants.

Carriages of the Branches of the Royal Family escorted in the following order :

1. Her Royal Highness the Duchess of Kent.....Two Carriages with Six Horses.
2. Their Royal Highnesses the Duke and Duchess of Cambridge.....Two Carriages with Six Horses.
3. Her Royal Highness the Duchess of Gloucester.....Two Carriages with Six Horses.
4. His Royal Highness the Duke of Sussex.....One Carriage with Six Horses.

Mounted Band of a Regiment of the Household Brigade under the direction of one of the Queen's Equerries, and two Assistants.

The Queen's Bargemaster.
The Queen's Forty-eight Watermen.

Her Majesty's Carriages, each drawn by Six Horses.

- First Carriage.....drawn by Six Bays.
Two Pages of Honour.....James C. McCowall, Esq. George F. G. Cavendish, Esq.
Two Gentlemen Ushers.....Major Beresford. Captain Green.
- Second Carriage.....drawn by Six Bays, contains
Two pages of Honour.....Charles Ellice, Esq. Lord Kilmarnock.
Two Gentlemen Ushers.....Charles Heneage, Esq. Honourable F. Byng.
- Third Carriage.....drawn by Six Bays, contains
Two Bedchamber Women.....Lady Theresa Digby. Lady Charlotte Copley.
Two Grooms in Waiting.....Honourable George Keppel. Henry Rich, Esq.
- Fourth Carriage.....drawn by Six Bays, contains
Two Bedchamber Women.....Lady Harriet Clive. Lady Caroline Barrington.
Two Grooms in Waiting.....Honourable William Cooper. Sir Frederick Stoven.
- Fifth Carriage.....drawn by Six Bays, contains
Two Maids of Honour.....Honourable Miss Rice. Hon. Miss Murray.
Groom of the Robes....Captain Francis Seymour. Clerk Marshall. Hon. Colonel Cavendish
- Sixth Carriage.....drawn by Six Bays, contains
Two Maids of Honour.....Hon. Miss Lister. Hon. Miss Paget.
Keeper of the Privy Purse... Sir Henry Wheatley.
Vice Chamberlain.... Earl of Belfast.
- Seventh Carriage.....drawn by Six Bays, contains
Two Maids of Honour.....Hon. Miss Cavendish. Hon. Miss Cocks.
The Treasurer of the Household... The Earl of Surrey.
Comptroller of the Household..... Rt. Hon. George Byng.
- Eighth Carriage.....drawn by Six Bays, contains
Two Maids of Honour.....Hon. Miss Dillon. Hon. Miss Pitt.
Two Lords in Waiting... Lord Gardner. Lord Lilford.
- Ninth Carriage.....drawn by Six Greys, contains
Two Ladies of the Bedchamber... Lady Portman. Lady Barham.
Two Lords in Waiting... Lord Byron. Viscount Falkland.
- Tenth Carriage.....drawn by Six Bays, contains
Two Ladies of the Bedchamber... Lady Lyttleton. Countess Mulgrave.
Two Lords in Waiting... Viscount Torrington. Earl of Uxbridge.
- Eleventh Carriage.....drawn by Six Bays, contains
Two Ladies of the Bedchamber... Countess of Charlemont. Marchioness of Tavistock.
Two Lords in Waiting... The Earl of Fingal. The Marquess of Headfort.
- Twelfth Carriage.....drawn by Six Blacks, contains
The principal Lady of the Bedchamber... The Marchioness of Lansdowne.
The Lord Chamberlain... The Marquess of Conyngham.
The Lord Steward... The Duke of Argyll.
Squadron of Life Guards.
Mounted Band of Household Brigade.
- Military Staff and Aides-de-Camp on horseback, three and three attended by one Groom each, and on either side, by the Equerry of the Crown Stable, Sir George Quinton and the Queen's Gentleman Rider.
Deputy Adjutant General. Deputy Quarter Master General.
Deputy Adjutant General of the Royal Artillery
Military Secretary to the Commander in Chief. Adjutant General.
Yeomen Prickers. Forresters.
- Quarter Master General.
Royal Huntsmen.
Six of Her Majesty's Horses with rich Trappings each led by two Grooms.
The Knight Marshal on Horseback.
Marshalsmen in ranks of four.
The three junior Exons of the Yeomen of the Guard on Horseback.
One hundred Yeomen of the Guard in ranks of four.
Ensign on Horseback..... Lieutenant of the Yeomen.
- The Senior Exon.....
- Yeomen of the guards
at each Wheel, and
Two Footmen at each door,
The Gold Stick,
Lord Combermere,
Two Grooms
- THE STATE CARRIAGE
- THE QUEEN.
The Mistress of the Robes
Duchess of Sutherland,
and
Master of the Horse, Earl of Albemarle.
The Captain General of the Royal Archers.
The Duke of Buccleugh, attended by two Grooms
Squadron of Life Guards.
- Yeomen of the Guards at each Wheel and two
Footmen at each door,
The Captain of the Yeomen
of the Guards,
The Earl of Ilchester
Two Grooms

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Copied from an Original Copy of the Programme of Queen Victoria's Coronation Procession—1837—Presented by Robert Townsend, a native of Toronto, now living in Newport, Kentucky, to the Public Library of Toronto—1889.

been little more brilliant than when the Queen goes down to the House of Lords to open Parliament. The only people cheered besides the Queen were the Duchess of Kent, the Duke of Sussex, the Duke and Duchess of Cambridge, and Marshal Soult. The latter was quite overcome by his reception, which was entirely unexpected by him, and he said it was a most noble trait in the English character to receive an old enemy so enthusiastically, for the cheering proceeded from all classes." Other accounts add that the Duke of Wellington was also enthusiastically welcomed by the multitudes. Marshal Soult was one of the Ambassadors Extraordinary sent by France. He was very proud at his enthusiastic reception by the countrymen of his old antagonist the Iron Duke. Mr. Raikes tells us that Soult was so much cheered, both in and out of the Abbey, that he was completely overcome. Speaking to his Aide, he said, "This is the greatest day of my life. It proves that the English believe that I have always made war as an honourable man." The cheering continuing, he was quite overpowered, and exclaimed, with the dramatic fervor of a true Frenchman, "Ah! vraiment, c'est un brave peuple."—(Truly, they are a fine people.)

On the procession reaching Westminster Abbey, the Queen was received at the door of that historic edifice by the great Ministers of State, the noblemen bearing the regalia and the Bishops carrying the patina, the chalice, and the Bible. The interior of the Abbey presented a scene of surpassing splendor. Galleries had been erected for the Members of Parliament, the Ambassadors, Corporation, and others who attended. The floor of the transepts was covered with benches for the Peers and Peersesses, the space behind being for spectators who were ticket-holders. Below the galleries were ranged lines of Foot Guards.

The ceremony began with the "Recognition." The Archbishop of Canterbury, with the great officers of State—the Lord Chancellor, the Lord Chamberlain, and the Earl Marshal of England—advanced and presented her Majesty first to the people on the east, saying, "Sirs, I here present you Queen Victoria, the undoubted Queen of this realm; wherefore all you who are come this day to do your homage, are you willing to do the same?" The answer came in a solemn cry, "God save the Queen!" The Archbishop and the Sovereign in like manner turned to the north, south and west, the Primate repeating each time the same formula, and answered always by the same cry, "God save the Queen!"

The Bishops, carrying the Bible, patina, and chalice, then advanced and placed them on the altar, while the Archbishops who read the Litany put on their copes.

Then the Queen, attended by the Bishops of Durham, and Bath and Wells, and the Dean of Westminster, advanced to the altar and made her first offering—a pall or altar-cloth of gold, which was delivered by an officer of the Wardrobe to the Lord Chamberlain, and by him to the Queen, who presented it to the Archbishop. It was laid by him on the altar. With the same ceremony an ingot of gold of one pound weight was offered by Her Majesty, and placed by the Archbishop in the oblation basin. Then the regalia was laid on the altar, and the Litany was read. This was followed by the Communion service and a sermon from the Bishop of London. The Queen then took her coronation oaths on the Gospels and signed them, kneeling afterwards at the altar while the "Veni Creator Spiritus" was sung. Then followed the solemn Anointing and the priestly blessing. The Queen sat in King Edward's chair; four Knights of the Garter held a rich cloth of gold over her head; the Dean of Westminster took the ampulla from the altar, and poured some of the oil it contained into the anointing spoon; then the Archbishop anointed the head and hands of the Queen, marking them with the sign of the cross, and pronounced the words, "Be thou anointed with holy oil as kings, priests, and prophets were anointed; and as Solomon was anointed king by Zadok the priest and Nathan the prophet, so be thou anointed, blessed, and consecrated Queen over this people, whom the Lord your God hath given you to rule and govern. In the name of the Father, of the Son, and of the Holy Ghost. Amen."

Her Majesty then received the other insignia of royalty—the spurs being presented by the Lord Chamberlain, and the Sword of State by Lord Melbourne and the Archbishop, the latter saying, as he put it into her right hand, "Receive this kingly sword, brought now from the altar of God, and delivered to you by the hands of us, the servants and bishops of God, though unworthy. With this sword do justice, stop the growth of iniquity, protect the holy Church of God, help and defend widows and orphans, restore the things that are gone to decay, maintain the things that are restored, punish and reform what is amiss, and confirm what is in good order; that doing these things you may be glorious in all virtue, and so faithfully serve our Lord Jesus Christ in this life that you may reign for ever with Him in the life which is to come. Amen."

Her Majesty was then invested with the royal robe and the orb. The royal sceptre was given her as the ensign of kingly power and justice; the rod with the dove as the "rod of equity and mercy." The placing of the crown upon the

The Coronation Day.

From "The Sun," London, June 28th, 1838.

ALL hail, Queen Victoria ! all hail to this day,
So teeming with promise—we welcome it here !
As the bright stream of glory pursues its bright way,
And the blessing of thousands ascends in that cheer !

But if thousands on thousands are happy before thee,
Saluting thy favours, and catching thy smiles ;
Oh ! think of the millions of hearts that adore thee—
For this day is a JUBILEE over the isles !

Not alone o'er the isles—but Hindostan afar
Doth our jubilee spread—in the West, the poor slave,
As he prays for thy mercy, " fair Liberty's star !
" Be the Queen of the FREE, as the Queen of the brave."

Let the African joy, for his freedom is nigh ;
Our Queen would not reign but o'er happy and free ;
Let that thunder attest it—you banner on high—
The Banner of Glory o'er land and o'er sea !

Bear witness, ye Nations ! the homage we pay,
The pride that we feel, and the love we declare ;
For thy Queen of our hearts is, on this happy day,
Not alone of the brave—but THE Queen of the Fair !

Nor can chivalry boast, in the rolls of renown,
A scene such as this—for old Time stands apart,
While the Crown of her PEOPLE VICTORIA puts on,
All radiant with beauty—and pure as her heart !

Then fill up a bumper to honour THE QUEEN !
Our hands and our hearts in devotion we give ;
And our children, while weeping with joy o'er this scene,
Shall pray, God bless VICTORIA ! and long may she live.



CORONATION OF QUEEN VICTORIA.

Sovereign's head was the striking culmination of this part of the proceedings.

A new crown to be worn by her Majesty had been specially made. It was more tasteful than that worn by George IV. and William IV., which had been broken up. The old crown weighed more than seven pounds, and the new, which was smaller, only about three pounds. It was composed of hoops of silver, enclosing a cap of deep blue velvet; the hoops were completely covered with precious stones, surmounted by a ball covered with small diamonds, and having a Maltese cross of brilliants on the top of it. The cross had in its centre a splendid sapphire; the rim of the crown was clustered with brilliants, and ornamented with fleur-de-lis and Maltese crosses equally rich. In the front of the large Maltese cross was the enormous heart-shaped ruby which had been worn by Edward the Black Prince, and which afterwards figured in the helmet of Henry V. at the battle of Agincourt. Beneath this, in the circular rim, was a large oblong sapphire. The jewels on the crown were estimated to be worth more than half a million dollars.

Lady Clemertina Davies, in her "Recollections of Society in France and England," says that as the Queen knelt and the crown was placed on her brow a ray of sunlight fell on her face, and, being reflected from the diamonds, made a kind of halo round her head. The moment of coronation was the signal for the sounding of trumpets and the beating of drums, and for guns to be fired from the Tower and the Park, from Windsor and Woolwich and other places, while from the throngs within and without went up an enthusiastic cry of "God save the Queen!" The Bible was then presented to the Queen, who returned it to the Archbishop, and by the Dean it was laid again on the altar. While the *Te Deum* was sung the Queen went between the Bishops to her first seat. She was then enthroned, or lifted on the throne or chair of homage on the platform, by the Archbishops and Bishops.

The Archbishop of Canterbury was the first to kneel and do homage for the Lords Spiritual, who each in turn then kissed the Queen's hand. The Dukes of Sussex and Cambridge, removing their coronets, did homage thus:—"I do become your liege man of life and limb and of earthly worship; and faith and truth I will bear unto you to live or die, against all manner of folk. So help me God!" Having touched the crown on the Queen's head, each in turn then kissed her left cheek and retired. The other peers then performed their homage kneeling, the senior of each rank pronouncing the words. It was at this part of the day's pro-


ceedings that an awkward incident occurred—an incident, however, which served to bring out an amiable trait in the Sovereign's character. As Lord Rolle, then upwards of eighty, was ascending the steps to the throne, he stumbled and fell. The Queen, forgetting all the ceremonious pomp of the occasion, started forward as if to save him, held out her hand for him to kiss, and expressed a hope that his Lordship was not hurt. Some rather obvious puns were made on the correspondence of the noble Lord's involuntary action with the title which he bore; and even his daughter was heard to remark, after it had been ascertained that no damage was done, "Oh, it's nothing! It's only part of his tenure to play the *roll* at the Coronation."

While the Lords were doing homage, the Earl of Surrey, Treasurer of the Household, threw silver medals about the choir and lower galleries, which led to a good deal of rather unseemly scrambling. The choir then sang an anthem. Next, divesting herself of her crown, the Queen knelt at the altar, and, after two of the Bishops had read the Gospel and Epistle of the Communion Service, made further offerings to the Church. She then received the Sacrament; the final blessing was given; and the choir sang the anthem, "Hallelujah, for the Lord God Omnipotent reigneth." Quitting the throne, and passing into the chapel of Edward the Confessor, while the organ played a solemn yet triumphant strain, Her Majesty was relieved of her Imperial Robe of State and arrayed in one of purple velvet. Thus adorned, with the crown upon her head, the sceptre with the cross in the right hand and the orb in the left, the Queen presented herself at the west door of the Abbey, and, delivering the regalia to gentlemen who attended from the Jewel Office, re-entered the State carriage on her return to the Palace. It was by this time nearly four o'clock, but the streets were still crowded with sightseers. State dinners, balls, fireworks, illuminations, feasts to the poor, and a fair in Hyde Park, lasting four days, which was visited by the Queen herself, followed the splendid ceremony of which Westminster Abbey had been the theatre.

CHAPTER III.

Marriage of the Queen.

Betrothal of the Queen and Prince Albert—Formal Announcement of the Coming Marriage—The Ceremony at St. James'—The Prince Consort—The Royal Children.

O Queen was ever more happily married than Victoria. In her cousin, Prince Albert of Saxe-Cobourg-Gotha, she found a true mate. The Prince was nearly her own age, the Queen being the elder by three months. He was descended from a long line of princely Saxons, among whom is to be counted the great Elector, Frederick the Wise, of Saxony, the protector of Martin Luther.

The idea of the future union of the two cousins had taken root from a very early period. The Prince used to relate that when he was a child of three years old his nurse always told him that he should marry the Queen, and that when he first thought of marrying at all he always thought of her. As the children grew up this idea was warmly encouraged by the King of the Belgians, uncle to both.

In 1838 Lord Palmerston did not think that marriage had yet entered the Queen's head. He thought, perhaps, some of her visitors would inspire her with the idea. "But," he says, "being used to agreeable and well-informed Englishmen, I fear she will not easily find a foreign Prince to her liking."

But Palmerston was mistaken. There were already many suitors for the hand of the Royal maiden. Prince Alexander, of the Netherlands; Prince Adelbert, of Prussia; Prince George, of Cambridge, were among those whose names were mentioned as suitors.

At length, the Duchess of Kent, in spite of obstacles raised by the King, who favored Prince Alexander, invited her brother, the Duke of Saxe-Cobourg, with his two sons, to pay her a visit in the spring of 1836.

Her Majesty thus records her impressions of the visit which followed the acceptance of this invitation:—

"The Prince was, at that time, much shorter than his brother; already very handsome, but very stout, which he entirely grew out of afterward. He was

most amiable, natural, unaffected and merry—full of interest in everything—playing on the piano with the Princess, his cousin, drawing; in short, constantly occupied. He always paid the greatest attention to all he saw, and the Queen remembers well how intently he listened to the sermon preached in St. Paul's when he and his father and brother accompanied the Duchess of Kent and the Princess there on the occasion of the service attended by the children of the different charity schools. It is indeed rare to see a Prince, not yet seventeen years of age, bestowing such earnest attention on a sermon."

The visit lasted a month; then the cousins parted. Almost simultaneously the King of the Belgians made the Princess aware of his wishes on the subject, and Her Royal Highness acknowledged her affection for her cousin in a letter to her uncle, dated June 7th, 1836:—

"I have only now to beg you, my dearest uncle," it concludes, "to take care of the health of one now so dear to me, and to take him under your special protection. I hope and trust that all will go on prosperously and well on this subject, now of so much importance to me."

In March, 1838, the King of the Belgians, of course with the sanction of Her Majesty, talked of the marriage to the Prince. He told the Prince that the Queen desired to postpone the marriage for a few years. Prince Albert rather naturally objected to any arrangement so indefinite. "I am ready," he said, "to submit to this delay, if I have only some certain assurance to go upon. But if, after waiting perhaps three years, I should find that the Queen no longer desired the marriage, it would place me in a very ridiculous position, and would to a certain extent ruin all the prospects of my future life."

Commenting on this the Queen wrote to the effect that she never entertained any idea of breaking the engagement. She afterwards repeatedly informed the Prince that she would never have married anyone else.

Later on, the Prince told her that he came over in 1839 with the intention of telling her that, if she could not make up her mind, she must understand that he could not then wait for a decision, as he had done at a former period, when their marriage was first talked about.

In October, 1839, the Prince, accompanied by his brother, paid the decisive visit to England. Arrived at Windsor Castle they were received by the Queen. Prince Albert was a young man to win the heart of any girl. He was singularly handsome, graceful and gifted. Had he been born in the lowest station he must

have been admired for his exceeding personal attractions. The next day her Majesty wrote to King Leopold, her anxious uncle: "Albert's beauty is most striking, and he is most amiable and unaffected—in short, very *fascinating*. The young men are very amiable, delightful companions, and I am happy to have them here."

After four days of happy intercourse, the Queen resolved upon the marriage. She communicated her resolve to the Prime Minister, Lord Melbourne, who expressed the greatest satisfaction at the arrangement, adding his conviction that it would not only make the Queen's position more comfortable, but would be well received by the country, the people being anxious to see her happily married.

On the 15th of October, with the full approval of every one, the two became engaged. The Queen wrote to Baron Stockmar: "I do feel so guilty I know not how to begin my letter, but I think the news it contains will be sufficient to ensure your forgiveness. Albert has completely won my heart, and all was settled between us this morning. I feel certain he will make me very happy. I wish I could feel as certain of *my* making him happy, but I shall do my best."

The Prince, on the other hand, writes thus to his grandmother at Gotha:—"The Queen sent for me alone to her room the other day, and declared to me, in a genuine outburst of affection, that I had gained her whole heart, and would make her intensely happy if I would make her the sacrifice of sharing her life with her, for she said she looked on it as a sacrifice; the only thing that troubled her was that she did not think she was worthy of me. The joyous openness with which she told me this enchanted me, and I was quite carried away by it."

Again the Queen writes in her journal:—"How I will strive to make Albert feel as little as possible the great sacrifice he has made! I told him it *was* a sacrifice on his part, but he would not allow it."

After a delightful month the two young princes took their departure. On the 20th November the Queen considered with Lord Melbourne the declaration to be made to the Privy Council. Her Majesty relates that she had much conversation with the Premier on the various arrangements to be made and the steps to be taken with regard to the marriage. Fifty thousand pounds was the amount of annuity it was proposed to settle on the Prince; and in this Lord Melbourne said (most erroneously as it turned out) that the Cabinet anticipated no difficulty whatever.



QUEEN VICTORIA, 1839.

Lord Melbourne also told the Queen of a "stupid attempt to make it out that the Prince was a Roman Catholic!" Absurd as such a report was, the Premier said he was afraid to say anything about the Prince's religion, and that the subject would not, therefore, be alluded to in the proposed declaration. This omission was afterwards severely commented upon in the House of Lords.

The Privy Council met on the 23rd inst., upwards of eighty members being present. It was a trying scene for the young Queen; but she says: "A glance at the Prince's picture, which I wore in a bracelet, seemed to give me courage."

She thus describes the scene:—"Precisely at two I went in. The room was full, but I hardly knew who was there. Lord Melbourne I saw looking kindly at me with tears in his eyes, but he was not near me. I then read my short declaration. I felt my hands shook, but I did not make one mistake. I felt most happy and thankful when it was over. Lord Lansdowne then rose, and in the name of the Privy Council asked that this most gracious and most welcome communication might be printed. I then left the room, the whole thing not lasting above two or three minutes. The Duke of Cambridge came into the small library where I was standing and wished me joy."

This is the declaration made by Her Majesty:

"I have caused you to be summoned at the present time in order that I may acquaint you with my resolution in a matter which deeply concerns the welfare of my people and the happiness of my future life. It is my intention to ally myself in marriage with the Prince Albert of Saxe-Cobourg and Gotha. Deeply impressed with the solemnity of the engagement which I am about to contract, I have not come to this decision without mature consideration, nor without feelings of strong assurance that, with the blessing of Almighty God, it will at once secure my domestic felicity and serve the interests of my country. I have thought it fit to make known this resolution to you at the earliest period, in order that you may be apprised of a matter so highly important to me and to my kingdom, and which I persuade myself will be most acceptable to all my loving subjects."

The formal announcement of the approaching marriage was made to Parliament in January, and was well received.

Many things, however, had to be considered. The naturalisation of the Prince; his annuity; the matter of precedence. Each of these questions afforded much opportunity for discussion. Eventually the naturalisation bill passed. The



H. R. H. PRINCE ALBERT.

annuity, through the efforts of Colonel Sibthorp, a Tory of the old school, with the aid of economical Whigs and Radicals, was cut down from fifty to thirty thousand pounds. The matter of precedence was not settled. It was felt that the common sense of the country would, in time, give him his due place by the side of his wife, without special legislation. But this apparent neglect was felt on the continent, where the Prince Consort held only the rank of a younger son of Saxe-Cobourg. In spite of all the talk, the misunderstandings and vexations the wedding-day was approaching.

Lord Torrington and Colonel Grey were sent to Gotha to escort the bridegroom to England.

The Prince returned to England, accompanied by his father and brother. He brought with him only the Swiss valet who had attended on him from the time he was seven years old, and his favorite greyhound, Eos.

London gave the young Prince an enthusiastic welcome. At Buckingham Palace he was received by the Queen and the Duchess of Kent. Shortly after his arrival, the oath of naturalisation was administered to him by the Lord Chancellor.

The 10th of February, 1840, was a great day not only for the Queen but for every one of her subjects.

Ever ready to give pleasure to her people, the Queen arranged to be married at noon instead of in the evening, as was usual with royal marriages.

The wedding took place in the Chapel Royal of St. James'. The day was wet and chilly, but the weather did not keep the people from thronging the streets, nor chill the enthusiasm of Her Majesty's loyal subjects. Every standing-place along the route by which the bridal procession passed was filled long before the tardy sun of February arose.

On the arrival of the procession at St. James' Palace preparations were at once made for proceeding with the ceremony.

At twenty-five minutes to one o'clock the Queen and her bridesmaids entered the chapel. The Queen proceeded to her chair and knelt in silent prayer. A few minutes afterwards the betrothed pair stood side by side before the altar. The marriage ceremony was performed by the Archbishop of Canterbury, assisted by the Bishop of London. The Duke of Sussex gave the bride away. As the ring was placed on the Queen's finger the Tower and Park guns were fired, at a preconcerted signal, announcing that the Queen was married. The Duke of



THE QUEEN IN HER BRIDAL DRESS.

Sussex kissed his niece heartily when the service ended, and the Queen went across to Queen Adelaide and kissed her affectionately. The bride and bridegroom then walked together in the procession, and the register was signed in the throne-room.

After the ceremony the happy couple drove to Windsor, where they remained one day. On that day the Queen found time to write these words to Baron Stockmar: "There cannot exist a dearer, purer, nobler being in the world than the Prince." Next day the Duchess of Kent, with the Duke of Cobourg and the hereditary Prince, attended by the whole Court, followed to Windsor. There was dancing that night and the next, and on the 14th the Court returned to London.

Addresses were received from both Houses of Parliament and from other bodies. State visits were paid to many of the theatres. On the 19th the Queen held a levee, at which the Prince, who led her in, took the place at Her Majesty's left hand, which he ever afterwards occupied on similar occasions.

Soon after the marriage a bill was passed naming Prince Albert regent in the possible event of the death of the Queen leaving issue. This gave the Prince a status which he had not before. In truth the Prince was for many years, if not unappreciated, yet not thoroughly appreciated. The chief count against him was that he was not an Englishman. This was perfectly true. Again, where he saw room for improvement he not unfrequently suggested improvement. This was very annoying. He was diffident and somewhat nervous in public. This was taken for coldness and hauteur. Idleness, extravagance and waste in the Royal Household were abhorrent to him. The Royal menials sneered at his parsimony. He disliked too much red tape. For example, a window in the Royal dining-room is broken; what is to be done? What is the good old way? A requisition must be made out by the under secretary of the Lord Steward, examined and countersigned by the Chief Secretary, endorsed by the Lord Steward, purchased and sent home. Now, a nice question arises. Who shall put the window in? Much hangs on this. The duty of the Lord Chamberlain is to see that the inside of the palace windows are cleaned. The duty of the Commissioner of Woods and Forests is to see that the outside of the palace windows are cleaned. Both these great Officers of State must be consulted. Vested rights must not be infringed upon. In the meanwhile—a meanwhile that may stretch out for months—the dining-room is uninhabitable. The Prince was radical



MARRIAGE OF THE QUEEN AND PRINCE ALBERT.

enough to desire a change. No wonder he was unpopular. He knew it; it distressed him; but he accepted it as inevitable.

With regard to public affairs the principle on which he invariably acted was that set forth in his reply when offered—some years later—the command of the Army. That principle was “to sink his own individual existence in that of his wife—to aim at no power by himself or for himself; to shun all ostentation; to assume no separate responsibility before the public; to make his position entirely a part of hers; to fill up every gap which as a woman she would naturally leave in the exercise of her regal functions; continually and anxiously to watch every part of the public business, in order to be able to advise and assist her at any moment in any of the multifarious and difficult questions brought before her—political, social, or personal.”

At home, however, in the domestic circle, the Prince gently but firmly asserted his authority, supported in this as in all things by the Queen's loving common sense. To those who argued that, after all, the Prince was her subject, she would reply “that she had solemnly engaged at the altar to ‘obey’ as well as to love and honor,” and this sacred obligation she could consent neither to limit nor to refine away.

On Nov. 21st, 1840, at Buckingham Palace, the Princess Royal was born. Writing to his father on the 23rd, the Prince said: “Victoria is as well as if nothing had happened. She sleeps well, has a good appetite, and is extremely quiet and cheerful. The little one is very well and very merry. I should certainly have liked it better if she had been a son, as would Victoria also, but, at the same time, we must be equally satisfied and thankful as it is. . . . The rejoicing in public is universal.” During the time the Queen was laid up, “his care and devotion,” the Queen records, “were quite beyond expression.” He was always at hand to sit by her, read to her, or write for her. “No one but himself ever lifted her from her bed to her sofa, and he always . . . wheel her on her bed or sofa to the next room. In short, his . . . like that of a mother, nor could there be a kinder, wiser, or . . .

The baptism of the Princess Royal took place on Jan. 10th, 1841, the first anniversary of the marriage.

On the 9th of Nov., 1841, the Prince of Wales was born. Shortly after his birth the Queen created him, by Letters Patent, Prince of Wales and Earl of Chester. Great were the rejoicings all the land over.

The christening of the Prince of Wales was a domestic event of some importance. Hitherto royal baptisms had been celebrated in the Palace, but the Queen preferred that her son should be christened in a consecrated building. It took place, therefore, on January 25th, 1842, in St. George's Chapel, Windsor. The ceremony was performed with all befitting state and splendor by the Archbishop of Canterbury.

Here we may set down the names of the other children of the Queen: Princess Alice Maud Mary, born April 25th, 1843; Prince Alfred Ernest Albert, Duke of Edinburgh, born August 6th, 1844; Princess Helena, born May 25th, 1846; Princess Louise, born March 18th, 1848; Prince Arthur, Duke of Connaught, born May 1st, 1850; Prince Leopold, late Duke of Albany, born April 7th, 1853; Princess Beatrice, born April 14th, 1857.

CHAPTER IV.

Troubles at Home and Abroad.

The Chartist Riots—Free Trade and the Corn Laws—Relations with France and the United States—The Ashburton Treaty—The Oregon Boundary Question—The 'Trent' Affair—The 'Alabama' Claims.



WHAT a freight of hopes the young Queen bore with her as she ascended the throne! Her youth secured sympathy; her sex inspired chivalrous devotion; her conduct won for her the nation's esteem. To the general joy Hanover—its crown being restricted to heirs male—was separated from Britain. No vestige of it remained but the cream colored horses in the Royal mews.

It was not long, however, before the sky began to cloud. First came the outbreak in Canada, referred to in a later chapter. Then there rose the difficulty in Jamaica, the outcome of the liberation of the slaves. The Imperial Government was eager to protect the negroes in their newly-granted rights. Their former masters found it hard to recognize their ancient chattels as their equals before the law. The Melbourne Administration brought in a Bill to suspend the Constitution of the island. The measure was opposed not only by Peel and the Conservatives, but by many of the Radicals. The Government was sustained by a majority of only five. This practically meant defeat, and the Ministry resigned.

Called upon to form a ministry, Sir Robert Peel made it a condition of his taking office that a change should be made in the ladies composing the Queen's Household. He desired to replace those who were of the rank of ladies of the bedchamber and above that rank—only three or four in number—with ladies who would be in sympathy with the policy of his party. Thus arose what is known in history as the "Difficulty of the Ladies," as the Whigs politely designated it, or the "Bedchamber Plot," as the more plain-spoken of the Tories called it. The Queen objected to Peel's proposal. She was perfectly satisfied: why should a change be desired on such a purely personal question? Peel remained firm in his demand. The Queen was equally determined to maintain her rights. Peel thereupon declined to form a ministry, and Melbourne returned

to office amid general contempt. The question, though trivial in itself, was the cause of heated discussions both in and out of Parliament. Soon after it was laid down as a rule that the chief officers of the Royal Household should change with the change of ministry—thus vindicating Peel in the position he had taken.

The Duke of Somerset, many years later, said that Melbourne's Premiership was fortunate for the Queen and good for the country; but his conduct and advice to the Queen, as to rejecting Sir Robert Peel because of the Court ladies, was a political error.



THE HOUSES OF PARLIAMENT, LONDON.

Her Majesty had many other difficulties to contend with. The High Church Clergy nursed the notion that the young Queen thought far too well of the Whigs and that she needed some frank admonition from their lips. Mr. Hook, (afterwards Dean of Chichester) was one of those who did not lack the courage to express his views, though good taste might, perhaps, have dictated another place in which to express them. Preaching one day before the Queen he said, speaking sternly and looking fixedly at her Majesty, "The Church would endure, let what would happen to the Throne." The day was hot and the

chapel was crowded to excess. On returning to Buckingham Palace, Lord Normanby asked the Queen, "Did not your Majesty find it very hot?" "Yes," replied the Queen, "and the sermon was very hot, too!"

The Reform Bill of 1832 had done much to make Parliament more thoroughly representative of the people. It admitted the middle-class to a share in the law-making power. But it left the working-classes almost altogether out of the franchise. Nor was there any sign that the Liberals intended to push reform further. The disappointment and discontent of the working-classes was intense. Naturally they turned to the Englishman's panacea for all wrongs—public meetings and speeches.

The Royal Speech on the opening of Parliament in February, 1839, contained this paragraph: "I have observed with pain the persevering efforts which have been made in some parts of the country to excite my subjects to disobedience and resistance to the law, and to recommend dangerous and illegal practices." This referred to what is known as the Chartist agitation. The "dangerous and illegal practices" alluded to were contained in a document called "The People's Charter." That Charter contained six points:

First—Universal suffrage, excluding, however, women. This has since been virtually granted.

Second—Election of annual parliaments. This proposition has not yet been granted, nor should it be. It would make public life insufferable to those actively engaged in it, as well as deranging the business of the country yearly.

Third—Vote by ballot. This was conceded by the Ballot Act of 1872.

Fourth—Abolition of property qualification for members of Parliament. This was enacted in 1858.

Fifth—Payment of members. This, though the rule in Canada, is still regarded with disfavor in Britain.

Sixth—Division of the Kingdom into equal electoral districts. This plan has been found to work well in Canada; sooner or later it must be adopted in the United Kingdom.

It will be seen that in this year of grace 1897 three of the six points of the People's Charter are incorporated in the British Statutes. The Canadian Parliament has gone still further, and adopted, practically, five of them. Yet in 1838 assemblies in which these points were discussed were condemned by proclamation, and people who openly advocated them were convicted, imprisoned and

treated with great severity. The ranks of the Chartists were recruited mainly from the artisan classes. Some of the agitators may have lacked discretion, but not one of them was wanting in zeal in the advocacy of their opinions. They held public meetings, organized clubs, and published newspapers. For many years little progress was made. The French Revolution, which dethroned Louis Philippe—the "King of the Barricades"—imparted fresh impetus to the Chartist movement. The leader of it was Fergus O'Connor. In 1848 he formed the plan of sending a monster petition to Parliament, containing, it was boasted, nearly five mil-

praying for the Charter. A million or more was to act as document. ment, alarmed ed demonstra- on the ground attempt to tion. For the the peace in 150,000 special sworn in, was Louis Na- wards Emperor a refugee in Duke of Wel- command of a troops held in

defend the city, and the Bank of England, the Houses of Parliament and other public buildings were made ready to withstand a siege.

This display of determination had an excellent effect on the advocates of physical force. When they assembled on Kensington Common they numbered less than 30,000; the procession of a million, which was to march across Westminster Bridge, dwindled to half-a-dozen; and the huge petition, when unrolled and examined, was found to contain only about a third of the boasted number of names,

lion signatures, passage of the procession of a of the signers escort to the

The Govern- at the threaten- tion, forbade it, that it was an coerce legisla- preservation of London over policemen were among whom poleon, after- of France, then England. The lington took large body of reserve to de-



RICHARD COBDEN.

Further examination produced still greater shrinkage. It was discovered that many of the signatures were spurious, having been put down in jest, or copied from gravestones and old London directories. Little wonder that the House of Commons rang with laughter over the exposure. This failure proved a death-blow to Chartism.

At the accession of the Queen, protective duties or taxes existed in Great Britain on all imported breadstuffs. With regard to these there were two parties in the nation. There were those who advocated these and similar measures as a protection to native industry; and there were those who, viewing them as simply laying a tax on the consumer for the benefit of the producer, claimed entire freedom of trade with the world. In 1839 an Anti-Corn Law League had been formed to enforce the views of the free-traders. Its most prominent members were Richard Cobden—the “inspired bagman with a calico millennium” of Carlyle—and the Right Hon. John Bright.

Agricultural distress in England, and the failure of the potato crop in Ireland, brought the question irresistibly to the front. Pressure was brought upon the Ministry to admit foreign corn free of duty. The Prime Minister could hold out no longer. By a process extending from 1846 to 1849 the corn laws were gradually repealed, with the exception of a trifling duty finally removed in 1869.

During the first two years of the Queen's reign French jealousy of English influence in Egypt threatened war. But the cloud passed. A better feeling between the two countries began to arise. In 1840, during the reign of Louis Philippe, the body of the great Napoleon was removed, by permission of the British Government, from St. Helena to France, where, in the Hotel des Invalides, Paris, the remains were deposited with solemn ceremonial. The revival of the Napoleonic glamour had much to do with the success of Louis Napoleon's Third Empire.

Louis Philippe's rumoured attempt to consolidate the crowns of France and Spain, by a marriage between his son and a Spanish princess, produced strained relations between England and France. The wily Philippe assured the British Cabinet that there was no truth in the rumor. True, his son, the Duc de Montpensier, was engaged to marry the Infanta, Donna Louisa, sister of the Queen of Spain, but the marriage was not to take place until the Queen married and had issue. Cordial relations were once more restored.

Next year, a visit paid to England by Nicholas, Emperor of Russia, bred sus-

picion in France that the two powers were intriguing against French interests in the East. In Britain, on the other hand, public feeling was aroused by the annexation by France of the Island of Tahiti. So far as European powers were concerned, the island belonged more to Britain than to any other country. Its Queen, Pomare, an old ally of Britain, was compelled, in 1842, to cede the island to France. She wrote her Majesty a touching letter pleading for aid; but aid meant war in the excited state of feeling in both France and Britain. True, the French Government disavowed the act of its officer, and claimed only a protectorate over the island; but the change was a change only in name. Britain was anxious for peace, and the barbarian Queen had to accept the situation.

Writing to King Leopold about this incident, the Queen said: "The only thing to mar our happiness is the heavy and threatening cloud which hangs over our relations with France. . . . The whole nation here is very angry. God grant all may come right, and I am still of good cheer. . . . But the French keep us constantly in hot water."

In the autumn of 1844 Louis Philippe visited England in the hope of restoring the good relations of the two countries. Much enthusiasm was displayed; hearty good wishes were interchanged, but little alteration took place in the feelings of the two peoples.

The Earl of Malmesbury records in his Memoirs:—"The officers of the French fleet have met with a most enthusiastic reception at Portsmouth. The English officers gave them a ball and a dinner; healths were drunk, and speeches made, and an immense quantity of humbug exchanged; but the French like that, so I hope it will put them in good humor."

In 1846, an incautious letter of Lord Palmerston falling into the hands of the French Foreign Minister afforded Louis Philippe the pretext he needed for abandoning his pledge with regard to the Spanish marriage. The French King hastened to arrange the marriages of Queen Isabella and her sister to the Duke of Cadiz and the Duc de Montpensier. The British Government met the announcement with a diplomatic protest. Louis induced his wife, Queen Marie Amelie, to announce the double marriage to Queen Victoria. In reply she sent the following dignified but severe letter:—

"OSBORNE, September 10th, 1846.

"MADAME,—I have just received your Majesty's letter of the 8th inst., and I hasten to thank you for it. You will perhaps remember what passed at Eu be-

tween the King and myself; you are aware of the importance which I have always attached to the maintenance of our cordial understanding, and the zeal with which I have labored towards this end. You have no doubt been informed that we refused to arrange the marriage between the Queen of Spain and our cousin Leopold (which the two Queens had eagerly desired), solely with the object of not departing from a course which would be more agreeable to the King, although we could not regard that course as the best. You will therefore easily understand that the sudden announcement of this double marriage could not fail to cause us surprise and very keen regret.

"I crave your pardon, Madame, for speaking to you of politics at a time like this, but I am glad that I can say for myself that I have always been *sincere* with you.

"Begging you to present my respectful regards to the King,

"I am, Madame,

"Your Majesty's most devoted sister and friend."

By this brilliant diplomatic triumph of France the British alliance was lost. Louis Philippe was ruined in the public opinion of Europe. The Liberals in France recommenced with new hopes their efforts to dethrone him. In Britain the feeling was rather disgust than regret.

Mr. Greville rejoiced. He thought it was a great damper to the Queen's infatuation for the House of Orleans.

"Nothing more painful," wrote Queen Victoria to the Queen of the Belgians, "could possibly have befallen me than this unhappy difference, both because it has a character so personal and because it imposes upon me the duty of opposing the marriage of a Prince for whom, as well as for all his family, I entertain so warm a friendship." "Everybody," said Lord Lansdowne writing to Lord Palmerston, "would have to turn over a new leaf with Louis Philippe." As for Prince Albert, he felt the blow as a national insult and a personal wrong, though, according to Baron Stockmar, both he and the Queen exercised the greatest self-command in concealing their resentment.

In a few months the revolution of 1848 had swept away the throne of France: Louis was a fugitive, dependent for food and shelter on our Queen. She welcomed him with a heartiness of sympathy which, while it must have amazed the ex-King, displeased her own people. Even Prince Albert had to beg her Majesty to moderate the warmth of her expression of sympathy for the dethroned mon-

arch. In Britain it was feared that these courtly demonstrations of compassion indicated a design of taking up arms against the French Republic. The fear was groundless. "We do everything we can for the poor family," the Queen wrote to King Leopold, "who are indeed sorely to be pitied. But you will naturally understand that we cannot make common cause with them, and cannot take a hostile position to the new state of things in France."

Louis deserved his fate. He had a large and loyal army at his back, but lacked courage to use it. He fled, and his flight made of a riot a revolution.

In 1842, what Ashburton, or treaty was ne-Ashburton, for-Baring, of the firm of Baring sent by Sir Ro-hal" of the Brit-with full power north-eastern other disputes States. The pute was settled, satisfaction of States than of been freely al-Ashburton supported by a from Canada.



THE RIGHT HON. JOHN BRIGHT.

is known as the Washington gotiated. Lord merly Alexander great banking Brothers, was bert Peel, on be-ish Government, to settle the boundary and with the United boundary dis-but more to the the United Canada. It has leged that Lord should have been commissioner Maine and Mas-

sachusetts each sent commissioners to watch their side. Surely it was a fatal oversight not to have had commissioners from Canada to support Lord Ashburton. As a result of the settlement made, as Mr. Bourinot says, "The State of Maine now presses like a huge wedge into the Provinces of New Brunswick and Quebec, and a Canadian railway is obliged to pass over American territory which many Canadians still believe ought to be a part of the Canadian Dominion." The United States Government was apparently much pleased with the proposed treaty. The treaty was promptly ratified by the Senate by more than a three-fourths vote, and was formally signed August 9th, 1842.

Since 1818 what is known as the Oregon, or western-boundary dispute has been a source of friction between the United States and Great Britain. In the settlement of this, as in the Ashburton treaty, the British came out second best. In 1840 the British Government rejected a proposition from the United States to make the line of 49° the frontier between the United States and Canada. The Americans, carrying one of the technical terms of their national game into their national politics, next tried a game of bluff, in which they were eminently successful. They made a claim to the line of $54^{\circ} 40''$, as the boundary line. In 1844 the election cry of the Democrats was "Fifty-four-forty or Fight." Polk was elected on that platform. At the risk of having to fight, Great Britain refused to listen to the proposal for the acceptance of such a line. The Americans then offered to compromise on the line of 49° . In 1846 Great Britain actually agreed to the line of 49° —a proposition which she had rejected a few years before. British diplomats should learn how to meet a bluff if they wish to hold their own when pitted against their United States confrères.

In December, 1861, a deadlock suddenly arose between Britain and the United States over the *Trent* affair, and war seemed imminent. Hostilities had broken out between the Northern and Southern States in the previous July, and the opinion of Britain was sharply divided on the merits of the struggle. The Southern States took a high hand against the Federal Government. They seceded from the Union, and announced their independence to the world at large, under the style and title of the Confederate States of America. Flushed by the opening victory which followed the first appeal to the sword, the Confederate Government determined to send envoys to Europe. Messrs. Mason and Slidell embarked at Havana, at the beginning of November, on board the British mail-packet boat *Trent*, as representatives to the British and French Governments, respectively. On the 8th instant the *Trent* was stopped on her voyage by the American man-of-war, *San Jacinto*, and Captain Wilkes, her commander, demanded that the Confederate envoys and their secretaries should be handed over to his charge. The captain of the *Trent* made a vigorous protest against this sort of armed intervention, but he had no alternative except to yield, and Messrs. Mason and Slidell, with their secretaries, were carried back to America and lodged in Fort Warren, then a receptacle for political prisoners. The *Trent* arrived at Southampton on November 27th, and when her captain told his story indignation knew no bounds. The law of nations had been set at defiance, and

the right of asylum under the British flag had been violated. The clamor of the press and of the streets grew suddenly fierce and strong, and the universal feeling of the moment found expression in the phrase "Bear this, bear all." Lord John Russell at once addressed a vigorous remonstrance to the American Government through the British Ambassador at Washington, on an "act of violence which was an affront to the British flag, and a violation of international law." He



SIR ROBERT PEEL.

Born 1788—Died 1850.

made it plain that her Majesty's ministers were not prepared to allow such an insult to pass without full reparation; but, at the same time, he refused to believe that it could be the deliberate intention of the Government of the United States to force upon them so grave a question. He therefore expressed the hope that the United States of its own accord would at once offer to the British Government such redress as alone could satisfy the British nation. He added that

this must take the form of liberation of the envoys and their secretaries, in order that they might again be placed under British protection, and that such an act must be accompanied by a suitable apology.

In the United States, Captain Wilkes was hailed as a hero. The Secretary of the Navy so far forgot his position as to publicly applaud him. The House of Representatives did the same. But that astute politician, Mr. W. H. Seward, the Secretary of State, saw that a grave breach of international law had been committed. President Lincoln agreed with him. The United States gave way, and acceded to the demands of the British Government. This decision was, perhaps, hastened by the war preparations in Britain—another instance of the wisdom of a firm policy on Britain's part. Protests from France, Austria, Prussia, Russia and Italy, against so wanton an outrage, may also have had their effect in hastening the United States Government to decide that it had better retreat while it could do so with honor.

From 1862 to 1871 the *Alabama* claims engaged a large share of public attention. In 1862 the *Alabama* was built in England, for the Confederate Government. The British Government was urged by the United States to prevent her departure. Delay occurred. Under the guise of a trial trip, the *Alabama* escaped. Subsequently she caused great loss to United States vessels and commerce, until she was sunk after an action with the U. S. steamer *Kearsage* in June, 1864. In January, 1865, the *Shenandoah* arrived in Hobson's Bay, Victoria, on the pretence of procuring coals and provisions. The Consul of the United States urged the Governor of Victoria to seize her as a piratical vessel. The Consul's affidavits were not considered strong enough to warrant the seizure, and the vessel was allowed to depart. She afterwards caused considerable loss to the United States. The United States demanded damages for the acts of these two vessels and others, and for indirect losses, alleging negligence on the part of the British Government. The United States claimed some \$45,000,000 damages. The dispute was settled by arbitration.

By the Treaty of Washington (8th May, 1871), it was agreed that the arbitrators should consist of five, nominated—one by Her Britannic Majesty, one by the President of the United States, one by the King of Italy, one by the President of the Swiss Confederation, and one by the Emperor of Brazil. Sir Alexander Cockburn, Lord Chief Justice of England, was arbitrator for Great Britain. Mr Charles Francis Adams, who had been Ambassador for the United States in Eng-

land through the whole time of the trouble, and knew every turn of the negotiations, represented his country. The King of Italy nominated Count Sclopis; the President of Switzerland nominated M. Jacques Staempfli; and the Emperor of Brazil, Viscount d'Itajuba. Count Sclopis was elected President of the Tribunal. The Conference, which met first on the 15th of December, 1871, at Geneva, sat for the last time on the 14th September, 1872. The "decision and award" was published in the supplement to the London *Gazette* of Friday, the 20th of September. The general decision was in favor of the United States, and the award was \$15,500,000 in gold, with interest—about one-third of the amount originally claimed by the United States. The decision in the *Alabama* case was by a majority of four voices to one. But in the *Shenandoah* case the ultimate decision was only three to two. It was provided that the money should be paid within twelve months after the date of the award. The award was dated 14th September, 1872. The receipt of \$15,598,120 was acknowledged by the United States 9th September, 1873. On the 31st March, 1895, it was announced that of the sum awarded, \$9,500,000 remained undistributed: no accepted claimants. It is supposed, however, that out of this surplus, the United States paid the \$5,500,000 awarded by the Halifax commission, alluded to in Chapter VI. The United States Government further proceeded to distribute what was left of the award. All vessels belonging to loyal Americans that had suffered from Confederate cruisers on the high seas were permitted to come in and prove damages. What was left after their claims were settled was distributed on a ratio of 33 cents to the dollar among those American ship-owners who had paid what was called "war premiums," or enhanced rates of insurance, caused by the depredations of the *Alabama* and kindred vessels.

CHAPTER V.

The Queen at Home.

Attempts at Assassination—Prince Albert and Popular Feeling—Royal Visits at Home and Abroad.

HOME is the nursery of the infinite. For the development of character there must be some retreat where "hearts are of each other sure," some sheltered spot which the blowing winds cannot ruffle. Wherever a true woman is, there is such a spot, a home. Amid the countless trials of exalted station, amid the agitated movements of political life, such a refuge of perfect tranquillity did the Queen, under the influence of her devoted consort, obtain.

In the midst of the most brilliant Court in Europe, there grew up a domestic family life, so perfect in its purity and charm that it might well serve for a bright example to every home in the land.

With a wisdom, which time has justified, the Queen has allowed her subjects to read and judge for themselves whether life at Court must necessarily impair the sincerity of character or the purity of faith. In her Journals, in the Memoirs of the Prince Consort, and of the Princess Alice, she has allowed us to be present in imagination with the members of the Royal Family in their domestic joys, and in the tribulations that came to them, as they come to all.

Lady Bloomfield, in her *Reminiscences*, gives us charming glimpses of the life at Court. In 1839 she writes :

"On our return to London I was presented to the Queen, and was often invited to the small dances at Buckingham Palace, which were very select and pleasant. One lovely summer's morning we had danced till dawn, and the quadrangle being then open to the east, her Majesty went out on the roof of the portico to see the sun rise, which was one of the most beautiful sights I ever remember."

And she thus describes the ordinary occupations of the ordinary day :

"The Prince and Queen breakfasted at nine, and took a walk every morning afterward. Then came the usual amount of business ; besides which, they drew and etched a great deal together, which was a source of great amusement, having the plates 'bit' in the house. Luncheon followed at the usual hour of two

o'clock. Lord Melbourne—or the Prime Minister for the time being—came to the Queen in the afternoon, and between five and six the Prince usually drove her out in the pony phaeton. If the Prince did not drive the Queen, he rode, in which case she took a drive with the Duchess of Kent or the ladies. The Prince also read aloud most days to the Queen. The dinner was at eight o'clock, and always with the company. In the evening the Prince frequently played at double chess, a game of which he was very fond, and which he played remark-



LONDON BRIDGE.

ably well." The hours were never late of an evening, and it was very seldom that the party had not broken up by eleven o'clock.

Two State balls and two State concerts are given every year at Buckingham Palace. At these Her Majesty, since the death of the Prince Consort, is represented by the Prince and Princess of Wales. The Queen limits the expense of the State balls to \$10,000 each, and the expense of the concerts to \$15,000 each.

Periodical receptions at Buckingham Palace, known as "Drawing Rooms," are held to allow persons to be "presented" to the Queen.

When the Court is at Windsor, the Queen's guests, on arriving at the visitors'

entrance of the Castle, are received by the pages of the chamber, who always have a list of the expected arrivals. The company assemble in the corridor by half-past eight, everybody being in full dress, those who have a right to wear the Windsor uniform arraying themselves in that. The Queen enters at a quarter to nine, with the members of the Royal Family, and the company at once go to dinner. Personal intercourse between the guests and the hostess takes place after dinner in the corridor. The Queen always converses for a few minutes with each guest in succession. After going round the circle she bows and retires for the night.

"The Queen then goes to her own apartments, where she reads or writes, or listens to a reader for about an hour. Her Majesty occupies either her own sitting-room, or the adjoining one, formerly Prince Albert's study.

"After the Queen has retired the guests and the rest of the household adjourn to one of the drawing-rooms, of which there are three at Windsor, the Red, the White, and the Green, connected by doors covered with exquisite carvings."

On one of the Queen's trips in the Royal yacht, the following incident is said to have delighted the sailors, and caused much amusement on board: The Ladies-in-Waiting had settled themselves in a sheltered place near the paddle-box, when the Queen came on deck and remarked what a comfortable place they had chosen. Her Majesty settled herself beside them. Suddenly a commotion was observed among the sailors, little knots of men talking together in a mysterious manner; first one officer came up to the Royal party, then another, they looked puzzled. At last Lord Adolphus Fitzclarence was called. The Queen, much interested, asked what was the matter, and inquired whether there was going to be a mutiny on board. Lord Adolphus laughed, but remarked he really did not know what *would* happen unless her Majesty would be graciously pleased to move her seat. "Move my seat?" said the Queen, "why should I? what possible harm can I be doing here?" "Well, ma'am," said Lord Adolphus, "the fact is, your Majesty is unwittingly closing up the door of the place where the grog tubs are kept, and so the men cannot have their grog!" "Oh, very well," said the Queen, "I will move on one condition, viz., that you bring me a glass of grog!" This was accordingly done, and after tasting it the Queen said: "I am afraid I can only make the same remark I did once before, that I think it would be very good if it were stronger!"

Occasionally the Ladies-in-Waiting were entertained with some funny anec-

dotes. One was that the mother of a girl who was going into service in a Duke's establishment gave her daughter strict injunctions to say "Your Grace," if ever the Duke spoke to her. The girl promised to pay attention to this, and departed. A few days afterwards the Duke met her in a passage and asked her some question, which, instead of answering, the poor girl immediately began, "For what I have received, may the Lord make me truly thankful."

On another occasion an Inspector was examining the children at the Duke's school. Among other questions he asked the meaning of the word "grace," upon which the children all exclaimed, with one accord, that it meant the Duke of Rutland!

On still another occasion a bishop's wife was forced, at the last moment, to engage the services of a country girl to assist in waiting on the dinner-table. The girl was particularly cautioned when presenting anything to the bishop, to say, "Will you have some of this dish, my lord?" During the dinner the bishop's wife called to the girl, and, handing her a dish of potatoes, told her to ask his lordship if he would have some. Being her first experience in such august company, the poor girl lost her head. By the time she had reached the bishop's chair she had completely forgotten the formula she had been told to use. Realising, however, that she must say something, and growing scarlet in the face in her embarrassment, she finally exclaimed, "O, god, will you have some potatoes!"

One day the Queen expressed a desire to hear Lady Bloomfield sing. In fear and trembling Lady B. sang one of Grissi's famous airs, but omitted a shake at the end. The Queen's quick ear immediately detected the omission, and smiling, her Majesty said to Lady Normanby, one of her Ladies-in-Waiting, "Does not your sister shake?" Lady Normanby, seizing the opportunity to perpetrate a joke at the expense of her sister, immediately answered, "Oh, yes, your Majesty, she is shaking all over!" All present, including the Queen, joined in the laugh that followed.

Eight Indians of the Chippewa tribe visited England in 1843. By command of the Queen they were received at Windsor Castle on the 20th December. They consisted of five chiefs, two women, and a little girl, and a half-breed. Her Majesty received them in the Waterloo Gallery, and in consequence of the oldest chief, a fine old man of seventy-five, having a sore throat, the second chief made a speech, which was interpreted by Mr. Catlin. He said he was much

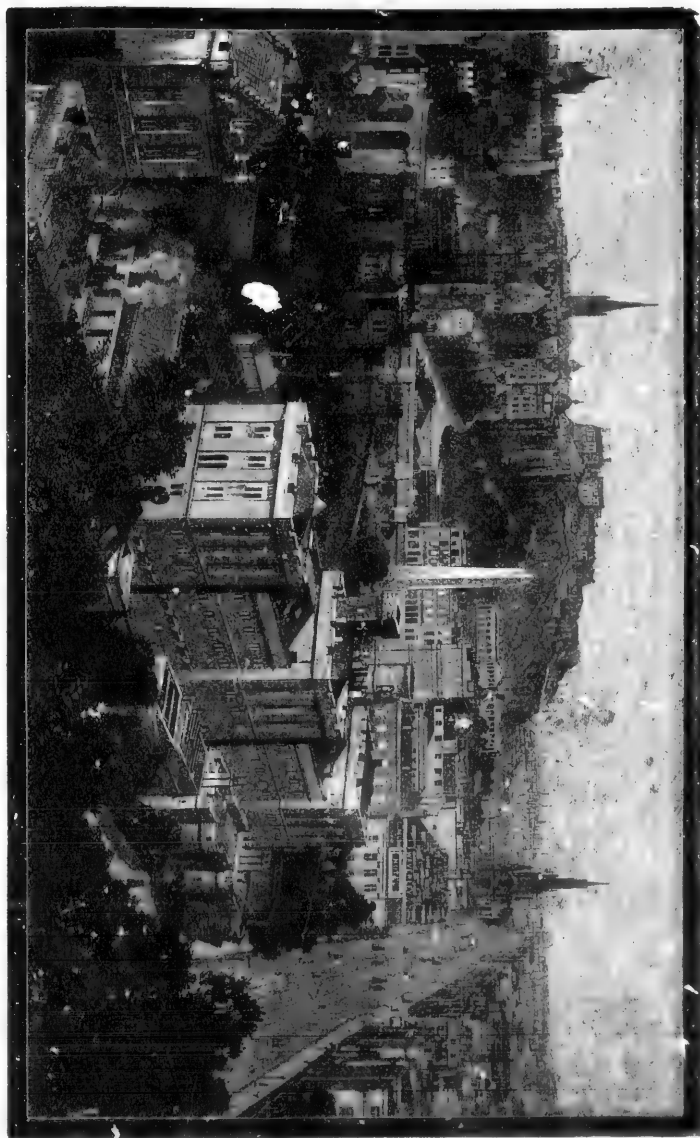
pleased that the Great Spirit had permitted them to cross the large lake (the Atlantic) in safety, that they had wished to see their great mother (the Queen). This they repeated three times with little variation. He then said that England was the great light of the world, and that its rays illuminated all nations, and reached even to their country. That they found it much larger than they expected, that the buildings were finer than theirs, and the wigwam (Windsor Castle) was very grand, and they were pleased to see it; that, nevertheless, they should return to their own country and be quite happy and contented; that they thanked the Great Spirit they had enough to eat—they were satisfied. They thought the people in England must be very rich, and they looked pleased and happy. They (the Chippewas) had served under our sovereigns, had fought their battles, and that he (the chief) had served under DeKinnsey, the greatest chief that had ever existed, or had ever been known. (Mr. Catlin observed that never having heard of the Duke of Wellington, they thought their general the greatest man). He had been on the field of battle when his general was killed, and had helped to bury him. He had received kindness from our nation, for which he thanked us; their wigwams at home had been made comfortable with our things. He had nothing more to say. He had finished.

Several assaults have been made on her Majesty.

On Wednesday, the 10th of June, 1840, Edward Oxford, a boy of seventeen, fired two shots at her Majesty as she was driving up Constitution Hill with Prince Albert, but happily missed in each case. He was arrested and tried. The jury pronounced him insane, and he was ordered to be kept in a lunatic asylum during her Majesty's pleasure. The best commentary on this leniency was that of Oxford himself, on being told of the similar attempts of Francis and Bean, in 1842: "If I had been hanged there would have been no more shooting at the Queen."

On Sunday, the 29th of May, 1842, John Francis made the second attempt on the life of the Queen. As the Queen and the Prince Consort were riding from church, Francis presented a pistol at their carriage window which flashed in the pan. The day following he made another and more determined attack. He was apprehended, tried and sentenced to death. The Queen, however, pleaded that the sentence should not be carried into effect, and it was finally commuted to transportation for life.

The very day after this mitigation of punishment became publicly known an-



EDINBURGH.

other attempt was made, on Sunday, the 3rd of July, by a hunchbacked lad named Bean, fortunately in vain. A bill was at once carried through Parliament making such attempts punishable by transportation for seven years, or by imprisonment for a term not exceeding more than three years, "the culprit to be publicly or privately whipped as often and in such a manner as the court shall direct, not exceeding thrice." Bean was convicted under this Act and sentenced to eighteen months imprisonment in Millbank Penitentiary.

The Queen was again fired at on Saturday, the 19th of May, 1849, by an Irishman named William Hamilton, as she was riding down Constitution Hill in an open carriage with three of her children. It was afterwards discovered that there was no bullet in the pistol. Hamilton was tried, pleaded guilty, and was sentenced to seven years transportation.

On Thursday, the 27th of June, 1850, a man named Robert Pate, of good family, and who held a commission in the Hussars for five years, struck her Majesty on the face with a stick as she was leaving the Duke of Cambridge's residence in her carriage. The force of the blow was broken by her bonnet, but it inflicted a severe bruise on the forehead. Pate was tried on the 2nd of July and sentenced to seven years' transportation.

On Thursday, the 29th of February, 1872, Arthur O'Connor, a lad of seventeen, presented a pistol at the Queen as she was entering Buckingham Palace after a drive. The pistol proved to be unloaded. The wretched lad held in his left hand a paper, which was found to be some sort of a petition on behalf of the Fenian prisoners. He was sentenced to twelve months' imprisonment and a whipping.

On Friday, the 3rd of March, 1882, Roderick Maclean fired at and missed the Queen as she was leaving Windsor railway station. On his trial he was adjudged insane. Congratulatory telegrams on the Queen's escape were received from all parts of the world.

Her Majesty is reported to have behaved with great coolness and bravery under these trying ordeals. Happily, criminal insanity has since found other outlets for its violence.

A few words may now be said on Prince Albert, and his career in his adopted country.

National character is the abiding product of a nation's past. Of English character the three most salient traits are independence, practicality, and a certain condescension towards foreigners.

The earliest account of England from the outside gives prominence to the last characteristic. Writing in 1497—just 500 years ago—the Venetian Ambassador says: "The English are great lovers of themselves and of everything belonging to them. They think that there are no men like themselves, and no other world but England; and whenever they see a handsome foreigner they say that he looks like an Englishman."

Captain Gronow, writing more recently, in his *Recollections*, remarks that a certain brag and bluster cause foreigners to say, and not without justice, that we (the English) are pre-eminently self-conceited, boastful and proud.

In the eyes of the nobles of Great Britain, the younger son of a German dukeling was a very small personage indeed. This was unfortunate; it was nevertheless a fact.

To the people generally the fact that he was a foreigner was sufficient to create a prejudice against Prince Albert. While he lived he was misunderstood by all but a few. At times he was misrepresented. It was long before he became in any degree popular; it may be doubted whether he was ever generally popular. False accusations against him, which affected his popularity, gave much pain to the Prince, and still more pain to his wife, the Queen.

And yet, in time, the excellence of his character became a commonplace, almost a by-word, among his adopted countrymen.

Greville was much impressed with the Prince while on a visit to Balmoral. He writes:

"I never before was in company with the Prince, nor had any conversation with him. On Thursday morning, John Russell and I were sitting together after breakfast, when he came in and sat down with us, and we conversed for about three-quarters of an hour. I was greatly struck with him. I saw at once (what I had always heard) that he is very intelligent and highly cultivated, and, moreover, that he has a thoughtful mind, and thinks of subjects worth thinking about. He seemed very much at his ease, very gay, pleasant, and without the least stiffness or air of dignity."

The period of the Great Exhibition of 1851, entailing upon him arduous and constant labor, was probably the climax of the Prince's career.

He established his title to the practical authorship of a no small design, when, on July 30th, 1849, twenty-one months before the opening, the Prince propounded at Buckingham Palace his conception of the Great Exhibition, as it

might be, to four members of the Society of Arts. In it were comprised powerful agencies tending to promote the great fourfold benefit of progress in the industrial arts, of increased abundance or diminished stint of the means of living among men, of pacific relations between countries founded on common pursuits, and of what may be termed free interchange of general culture.

The Exhibition was a great work of peace on earth: not of that merely diplomatic peace which is honeycombed with suspicion, which bristles with the apparatus and establishments of war on a scale far beyond what was formerly required for actual belligerence, and which is potentially war, though still on the tiptoe of expectation for an actual outbreak. It was a more stable peace, founded on social and mental unison, which the Exhibition of 1851 truly, if circuitously, tended to consolidate. And if, in the quarter of a century which has since elapsed, counter influences have proved too strong for the more beneficial agencies, let us recollect that many of the wars which have since occurred have been in truth constructive wars, and have given to Europe the hope of a more firmly knit political organization. Even if this had not been so, the influences of theory and practice associated with the Great Exhibition would still have earned their title to stand along with most other good influences in the world, among things valuable but not sufficient.

During the last decade, however, of his years, from 1852 to 1861, wars, as well as rumors of wars, became the engrossing topic of life and thought to many a mind which, if governed by its own promptings, by the true direction and demand of its nature, would have battered only on the pastures of national union and concord. The Crimean War, with its fore and after-shadows, began early in 1853, and closed in 1856; it was followed by the Indian Mutiny, and this by the French war panic of 1858-60, which, more than any other cause, encouraged as it was by no small authorities, altered the disposition of the British people in a sense favorable to, and even exigent of, enlarged military and naval establishments. This, no doubt, was a great misfortune to the Prince, in regard both to the mental movement which required a congenial atmosphere and exercise, and to the eventual greatness which was its natural result.

He had no liking for war or rumours of war. He was, properly and essentially, a man of peace. The natural attitude of his mind was not that of polemical action, but of tranquil, patient, and deliberate thought. It was as a social philo-

sopher and hero that he was qualified to excel, rather than as a political or military athlete.

The Prince's life from day to day was not a life fashioned by haphazard, but one determined by conscientious premeditation. Though a short, it was a very full and systematic life. So regarding it, it may be said that his marital relation to the Sovereign found a development outwards in three principal respects. First, that of assistance to the Queen in her public or political duties. Secondly, in the government of the Court and household. Thirdly, in a social activity ad-



HOLYROOD PALACE, EDINBURGH.

dressed to the discovery of the wants of the community, and reaching far beyond the scope of Parliamentary interference, as well as to making provision for those wants, by the force of lofty and intelligent example, and of moral authority.

The Prince's contemplation and study of the living and working Britain were alike assiduous and fruitful; and this man, who never sat upon our Throne, and who ceased at the early age of forty-two to stand beside it, did more than any of our Sovereigns, except very, very few to brighten its lustre and strengthen its foundations. He did this, by the exhibition in the highest place, jointly with

the Queen, of a noble and lofty life, which refused to take self for the centre of its action, and sought its pleasure in the unceasing performance of duty.

Royal visits at home and abroad may next claim our attention.

Her Majesty has been a great traveller. Few are the cities of England and Scotland which she has not enriched with her royal presence. Ireland, France, Belgium, Germany and, in later years, Italy have enjoyed her visits. One visit of the early days of her reign is full of interest. The Queen and Prince Albert saw the *Trafalgar* launched at Woolwich. At the request of her Majesty, Lady Bridport, niece of Lord Nelson, named the vessel, using wine taken from Nelson's flag-ship, the *Victory*, after the battle of Trafalgar. Of those who had taken part in that decisive action one hundred were on board at the time of the launch of the new man-of-war.

In 1842 her Majesty paid her first visit to Scotland. On the evening of August 31st the royal yacht passed St. Abb's Head, and her Majesty records that "numbers of fishing boats (in one of which was a piper playing) and steamers full of people came out to meet us, and on board of one large steamer they danced a reel to a band. It was a beautiful evening, calm, with a fine sunset, and the air so pure."

The royal party landed at Leith and drove to Edinburgh. Their welcome was most enthusiastic.

Prince Albert, writing to the Duchess of Saxe-Gotha on the 18th of September, shortly after the return to Windsor, says: "Scotland has made a most favorable impression upon us both. The country is full of beauty, of a severe and grand character; perfect for sport, and the air remarkably pure and light in comparison with what we have here. The people are more natural, and marked by that honesty and sympathy which always distinguish the inhabitants of mountainous countries who live away from towns. There is, moreover, no country where historical traditions are preserved with such fidelity, or to the same extent."

The Queen sailed from Granton Pier on the 15th September, and a letter was addressed to the Lord Advocate by the Earl of Aberdeen, in which the latter was instructed to say: "The Queen will leave Scotland with a feeling of regret that her visit on the present occasion could not be farther prolonged. Her Majesty fully expected to witness the loyalty and attachment of her Scottish subjects; but the devotion and enthusiasm evinced in every quarter, and by all ranks, have produced an impression on the mind of her Majesty which can never be effaced."

In Mr. Barnet Smith's Life of the Queen, Sir Thomas Dick Lauder states that on Castle Hill an elderly woman succeeded by a *coup de main et de force* in making her way past the guards; and having most unceremoniously passed through the party in attendance on her Majesty, she exclaimed, in a convulsive state of excitement, "Oh, will ye no let me see the Queen?" The military pushed her back, but she was not to be so easily beaten. She again squeezed forward until she stood within a yard of the royal carriage. "Heeh, sirs!" she exclaimed, clasping her hands, "is that the Queen—is that the Queen? Weel, what have I no seen this day? Eh! but she's a bonnie leddie!" The poor woman had not only seen the Queen, but she was gratified by the Queen's recognition of herself. Another anecdote is told in illustration of the Queen's quickness of observation and condescension on all such public occasions. A gentleman who lived near Edinburgh said to his servant on the evening of the Queen's first visit to the city, "Well, John, did you see the Queen?" "Troth did I that, sir." "Well, what did you think of her, John?" "Troth, sir, I was terrible feared afore she came forrit,—my heart was amaist in my mouth; but when she did come forrit, od, I wasna feared at a'. I jist looked at her, an' she lookit at me, an' she bowed her heid to me, an' I bowed my heid to her. OJ, she's a raal fine leddie, wi' fient a bit o' pride aboot her at a'."

Dr. Boyle says: "It is impossible to describe the enthusiasm with which she and Prince Albert were received on their progress through the old town of Edinburgh to the Castle. Opposite them in an open carriage were Sir Robert Peel and Lord Aberdeen, and it was certainly marvellous that the Conservative ministers so soon after the Reform Bill should have had the reception they enjoyed."

In 1843 the Queen and the Prince Consort paid a visit to France. This was the first time an English sovereign had visited France since the Field of the Cloth of Gold. The Royal visitors were accorded a warm reception by the French King, Louis Phillipe.

After a brief stay at Brighton, on returning from France, the Royal yacht was headed for Ostend. The old cities of Flanders put on their fairest array to welcome the young Queen. The Prince writes: "Victoria was greatly interested and impressed; the cordiality and friendliness which met us everywhere could not fail to attract her towards the Belgian people."

In October of the same year Prince Albert accompanied the Queen to Cam-

bridge. The Prince received a magnificent welcome from the students on receiving the degree of Doctor of Civil Law. A second visit was paid in 1847 on the occasion of the Prince's installation as Chancellor of the University.

In 1845 the Queen, accompanied by the Prince, paid her first visit to Germany, the native land of her mother and of her husband. From Woolwich they steamed to Antwerp. At Malines they were met by the King and Queen of the Belgians, who escorted them to the boundary of their dominions. At Aix-la-Chapelle they were met by the King of Prussia. At Bonn, where the Prince had been a student, the Queen was introduced to several of his old tutors. They went "to Albert's former little house, and found it in no way altered." In the evening they were entertained at a banquet. The King, by nature an orator of a high order, seized the opportunity to propose the health of his royal guests in language which was well calculated to excite the warmest enthusiasm. "Gentlemen," he said, "fill your glasses! There is a word of inexpressible sweetness to British as well as to German hearts. Thirty years ago it echoed on the heights of Waterloo, from British and German tongues, after days of hot and desperate fighting, to mark the glorious triumph of our brotherhood in arms. Now it resounds on the banks of our fair Rhine, amid the blessings of that peace which was the hallowed fruit of the great conflict. That word is *Victoria!* Gentlemen, drink to the health of her Majesty the Queen of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland (*bowing gracefully to the Queen*) and (*making his glass ring, according to German wont, against the glass of Prince Albert*) to that of her august Consort."

This most gallant and in every way charming speech affected the Queen very much. Bunsen, who was present, tells us she bowed at the first word, but much lower at the second. Her eyes brightened, and as the King was taking his seat again she rose and bent towards him, and kissed his cheek; then took her seat again with a beaming countenance.

At Cobourg a crowd of relatives welcomed their arrival; "the staircase," writes the Queen, "was full of cousins—it was an affecting but exquisite moment which I shall never forget." The 26th of August, the Prince's birthday, was spent at Rosenau, where His Royal Highness was born, and the Queen writes: "To celebrate this dear day in my beloved husband's country and birth-place is more than I ever hoped for, and I am so thankful for it! I wished him joy so warmly when the singers sang as they did the other morning."

They quitted Germany with regret. Everything had been done to show them kindness, and they felt it. Happily all had gone well in England during their absence. At Osborne the most delightful of welcomes awaited them; there, as they drove up, "looking like roses, so well and so fat, stood the four children—much pleased to see us."

In 1849 her Majesty paid her first visit to Ireland. The Queen writes:—"On



EARL OF ABERDEEN.

Born 1784—Died 1860.

August the 2nd, at 8 o'clock in the evening, we were close to the Cove of Cork, and could see many bonfires on the hills. The harbor is immense, though the land is not very high, and, entering by twilight, it had a very fine effect. Next morning to give the people the satisfaction of calling the place Queenstown, in honor of its being the first spot on which I set foot on Irish ground, I stepped ashore amid the roar of cannon, and the enthusiastic shouts of the people. Cork

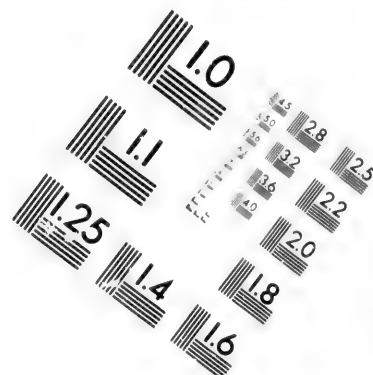
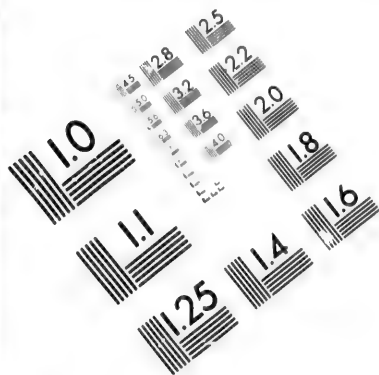
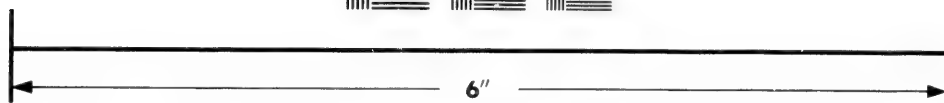
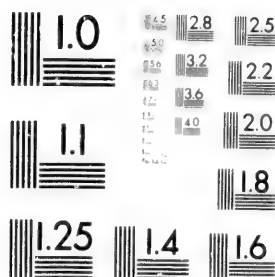
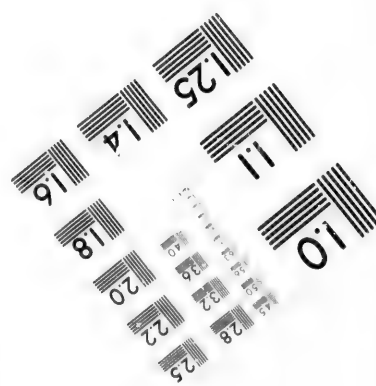
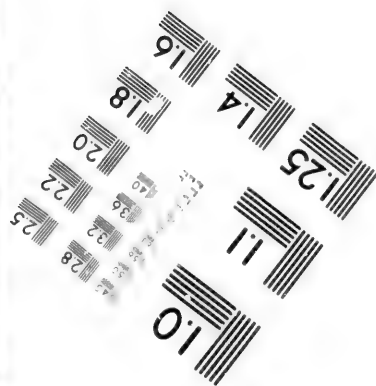


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received her with a true Irish welcome. "Cork," her Majesty writes, "is not at all like an English town, and looks rather foreign. The crowd is a noisy, excitable, but very good-humored one. The beauty of the women is very remarkable, and struck us much; such beautiful dark eyes and hair, and such fine teeth; almost every third woman was pretty, and some remarkably so."

From Cork they sailed to Waterford, and from thence to Dublin Bay. They found the magnificent harbor of Kingstown full of ships of every kind. The Queen tells us:—"The wharfs, where the landing-place was prepared, were densely crowded; altogether it was a noble and stirring spectacle. The setting sun lit up the country, the fine buildings, and the whole scene with a glowing light, which was truly beautiful."

Next morning the railway conveyed the royal party to Dublin. In open carriages they proceeded to the Viceregal Lodge, followed by a brilliant staff, and escorted by the 17th Lancers and the Carabiniers. "It was," the Queen writes, "a wonderful and striking scene, such masses of human beings, so enthusiastic, so excited, yet such perfect order maintained; then the number of troops, the different bands stationed at certain distances, the waving of hats and handkerchiefs, the bursts of welcome that rent the air—all made it a never-to-be-forgotten scene, when one reflected how lately the country had been in open revolt, and under martial law."

Next day they visited the Bank, the old Parliament House, the Model School, where they were received by the Archbishop of Dublin and the Roman Catholic Archbishop Murray; the Infant School, Trinity College, then "home again, where I wrote and read, and heard our children say some lessons."

The following day a levée was held, "everything here as at St. James's. The Castle staircase and throne-room quite like a palace. Two thousand people were presented."

A review of the troops followed in Phoenix Park—six thousand one hundred and sixty men, including the Constabulary. Then came a Drawing-Room: "I should think between two and three thousand people passed us, and one thousand six hundred ladies were presented."

Next day Carton, the Duke of Leinster's seat, was visited. "After luncheon we walked out and saw some of the country people dance jigs, which was very amusing. It is quite different from the Scotch reel; not so animated, and the steps different, but very droll. There were three old and tattered pipers playing.

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H.R.H. THE PRINCE CONSORT.



The Irish pipe is very different to the Scotch ; it is very weak, and they don't blow into it, but merely have small bellows, which they move with the arm."

They left for Dublin in a jaunting-car, "the people riding, running, and driving with us, but extremely well-behaved."

The enthusiasm was kept up to the very moment of their departure. "We stood on the paddle-box as we slowly steamed out of Kingstown, amid the cheers of thousands and thousands, and the salutes of all the ships, and I waved my handkerchief as a parting acknowledgment of their loyalty."

Belfast was the next place visited. The town was beautifully decorated with flowers, hangings, and very fine triumphal arches, the galleries full of people, and the reception very hearty. "The favorite motto, written up everywhere, was 'Cead mille failthe,' which means 'a hundred thousand welcomes' in Irish, which is very like Gaelic."

At sea, on her way to Scotland, her Majesty writes: "I intend to create Bertie—the Prince of Wales—Earl of Dublin, as a compliment to the town and country; he has no Irish title, though he is *born* with several Scotch ones (which we have inherited from James VI. of Scotland and I. of England); and this was one of my father's titles."

Mr. W. O'Connor Morris witnessed the triumphant progress through the chief town of Ireland of the Queen and her late lamented Consort. "I took no part," he says in his Memoirs, "in the Castle festivities—a Court dress was far beyond my means; but I beheld and observed scenes that strongly impressed my mind. Famine had ravaged the land, and brought death and pestilence; there had been a show of a rebellious outbreak; the Government had been savagely decried; and the few mob leaders, who still plied their trade, endeavored to make a display of sedition. Yet all bitter memories and feelings disappeared in the enthusiastic and passionate acclaim which everywhere greeted the royal visitors, whether in the wealthy or in the poorest parts of the city. Black flags were hung out at a few spots, but they were instantly torn down by the indignant populace; the streets swarmed with delighted crowds expressing their loyalty in resounding cheers; and Dublin, decked out in many-hued colors, revelled in a holiday of unfeigned joyfulness. The sight of the review in Phoenix Park, and of the departure of the Royal Squadron from Kingstown, was one of universal goodwill and sympathy. Ireland gave from her heart 'her thousand welcomes,' and she looked forward as it were to an auspicious future. This promise of hope has not been fulfilled;

and except at distant intervals, and for a very few days, the presence of the sovereign has not been seen in Ireland. This has been a great, perhaps an irreparable, mistake; opportunities of inestimable worth have been lost for gaining the affection of a warm-hearted race. When will Englishmen learn that the Celt is to be won, not by institutions, laws and abstractions, but by the magic of personal rule and kindness?"

It was in her Highland home, indeed, that the Queen delighted most. There she could lay aside the trappings of State and be for a while what she loved best to be—the happy wife and mother. Even now—though he is gone who was the riches of the place—no spot on earth is dearer to the Queen than Balmoral. Leased in 1848, purchased in 1852, the little white-washed castle was soon transformed by the architectural skill of the Prince into fullest harmony with the lovely mountain solitudes.

Writing at Balmoral, Friday, September 8th, 1848, the Queen says:

"We arrived at Balmoral at a quarter to three. It is a pretty little castle in the old Scottish style. There is a picturesque tower, and garden in front, with a high wooded hill; at the back there is a wood down to the Dee, and the hills rise all around. . . . At half-past four we walked out and went up to the top of the wooded hill opposite our windows, where there is a cairn, and up which there is a pretty winding path. The view from here looking down upon the house is charming. To the left you look towards the beautiful hills surrounding Lochnagar, and to the right towards Ballater, to the glen (or valley) along which the Dee winds with beautiful wooded hills, which reminded us very much of the Thüringerwald. It was so calm and so solitary, it did one good as one gazed around; and the pure mountain air was most refreshing. All seemed to breathe freedom and peace, and to make one forget the world and its sad turmoils.

"The scenery is wild and yet not desolate, and everything looks much more prosperous and cultivated than at Laggan. Then the soil is delightfully dry. We walked beside the Dee, a beautiful rapid stream, which is close behind the house. The view of the hills towards Invercauld is exceedingly fine."

Even the cynical Greville can hardly refrain from a sigh of envy as he witnessed the simple happiness of Balmoral. On September 15th, 1849, he writes: "Much as I dislike Courts and all that appertains to them, I am glad to have made this expedition and to have seen the Queen and the Prince in their High-

land retreat, where they certainly appear to great advantage. The place is very pretty, the house very small. They live there without any state whatever; they live not merely like private gentlefolks, but like very small gentlefolks—[the present Castle was not then built]; small house, small rooms, small establishment. There are no soldiers, and the whole guard of the Sovereign and the whole Royal Family is a single policeman, who walks about the grounds to keep off impertinent intruders, or improper characters. . . . They live with the greatest simplicity and ease. The Prince shoots every morning, returns to luncheon, and then they walk and drive. The Queen is running in and out of the house all day long, and often goes about alone, walks into the cottages, sits down and chats with the old women."




BALMORAL CASTLE, SCOTLAND.

CHAPTER VI.

Britain and Her Colonies.

The Canadian Confederation—The Rebellion of 1837—The "Caroline" Affair—The Fenian Raids—
The Act of Union—The British Empire in India—The Indian Mutiny—The Queen Proclaimed
Empress of India.

HE vast Colonial possessions of Great Britain are the pride of every British subject and the wonder of the world. The British Empire in India extends over a territory larger than the Continent of Europe without Russia. The Dominion of Canada includes the whole of British North America except, Newfoundland and Labrador—a territory nearly as large as the Continent of Europe.

Canada is the largest of all the British possessions, being over 30 per cent. of the area of the British Empire. The Continent of Australia, with Tasmania and New Zealand added, is the next largest. The combined area of Canada and Australia, including British New Guiana, comprises nearly 70 per cent. of the British Empire.

The Dominion of Canada has an area of about 3,456,383 square miles, of which 3,315,647 are land surface and 140,736 water surface. It is about 3,500 miles from east to west and 1,400 miles from north to south. It is bounded on the north by the Arctic Ocean, on the west by the Territory of Alaska and the Pacific Ocean, on the east by the Gulf of St. Lawrence and Labrador, and on the south by the Atlantic Ocean and the United States of America. The length of the southern frontier line from ocean to ocean is 3,000 geographical miles, 1,400 miles being a water-line by river, lake and sea, and 1,600 miles a boundary by land. In addition to this boundary between Canada and the United States there is the boundary between Canada and Alaska (belonging to the United States by purchase from Russia in 1867). The line is in process of delimitation by joint commission.

To the average reader figures will convey but a faint idea of the vastness of Canada. A better idea will be had by comparison with other countries. England, Scotland and Wales together form an area of 88,000 square miles. Forty such areas could be cut out of Canada. New South Wales contains 309,175

square miles, and is larger by 163 square miles than France, Italy and Sicily. Canada would make eleven countries the size of New South Wales. In extent there are three British Indies in Canada and still enough left over to make a Queensland and a Victoria. The German Empire could be carved out of Canada and fifteen more countries of the same size, with still room enough to fill in corners with Belgium, Denmark, Greece, Servia and Switzerland. Ireland could then be accommodated and yet a patch left large enough for Delaware and Connecticut.



WILLIAM LYON MACKENZIE.

The inland water surface of Canada is much larger than the area of Great Britain and Ireland.

The five great lakes of Canada contain more than half the fresh water of the globe.

These five inland lakes of Canada, in conjunction with a magnificent canal system, form a complete system of navigation from the head of Lake Superior to the Atlantic Ocean, thence to Liverpool, a distance of some 4,600 miles.

Canada has vast stretches of timber lands; fisheries, the most extensive in the world, and minerals of incalculable value.

Realizing the vastness and the wonderful natural resources of this country, it is more than surprising to find that only thirty years ago an influential, though fortunately not a numerous class of politicians in Great Britain promulgated the doctrine that the colonial dominions of the Empire were not merely useless but detrimental to the mother country.

Sir Henry Taylor, the poet, who was for many years connected with the Colonial Office, and exercised much influence there, thought it was highly desirable that the colonies should be separated from Great Britain. In his estimation the worst consequence of the late dispute with the United States (in 1864) was that the mother country and its North American colonies were involved in closer relations and a common cause.

In 1874 the Rt. Hon. W. E. Forster visited Canada, and at a dinner in Montreal he spoke strongly of his earnest desire to maintain the union between Canada and the mother country. At Ottawa he had not a little talk with Lord Dufferin, the Governor-General, on the future of Canada in its relation to the Empire. He was specially pleased to find that the "very strong words" which he had spoken in Montreal on that subject had been "a real help" to the Governor-General, who had been somewhat discouraged by the tone of one or two prominent public men in England, who seemed not only willing, but positively wishful to let Canada go.

Happily, a great revolution has taken place in Great Britain within recent years about the real value to her of her colonies.

The Rt. Hon. Joseph Chamberlain, the Secretary of State for the Colonies, recently announced that the Premiers of the self-governing colonies had been invited to become the guests of the Imperial Government on the occasion of the celebration of the Queen's Diamond Jubilee. In referring to the welcome of these "constitutional heads of the communities which, by their free choice, have selected them to preside over the destinies of those provinces of the Great Empire," he concluded his remarks in his own inimitable way by saying:

"But, after all, this is the great motive which influences the Government—we want to show to these gentlemen, we want to show to the Colonies that they worthily represent that the days of apathy and indifference have long ago passed away. We want to prove to them that we are as proud of them as we believe

that they are proud of us. We want to show them that we have confidence in their future, and that we have hope in their closer union with ourselves, so that in the future, the British Empire, founded upon freedom, buttressed by the affection of its several members, fortified by mutual interest, shall stand impregnable and unassailable 'four-square to all the winds that blow.'"

The late Sir John A. Macdonald, Mr. George R. Parkin, and others, did good work in arousing public opinion on this point.

That fascinating orator, and yet most practical statesman, Lord Dufferin, had also much to do with changing public opinion in the mother land. For many years he exercised a great and commanding influence throughout the Empire. His speeches in Canada while Governor-General were brilliant, yet practical. He had seen the country, he had mingled with the people, he knew the feelings of loyalty to Queen and Empire that filled the breasts of young and old. Speaking in Toronto in 1877—just twenty years ago—he made this memorable prophecy:

"Canada dreams her dream and forebodes her destiny—a dream of ever broadening harvests, multiplying towns and villages, and expanding pastures, of constitutional self-government, and a confederated empire; of page after page of honorable history, added as her contribution to the annals of the mother country and to the glories of the British race; of a perpetuation for all time upon this continent of that temperate and well-balanced system of government, which combines in one mighty whole, as the eternal possession of all Englishmen the brilliant history and traditions of the past, with the freest and most untrammelled liberty of action in the future."

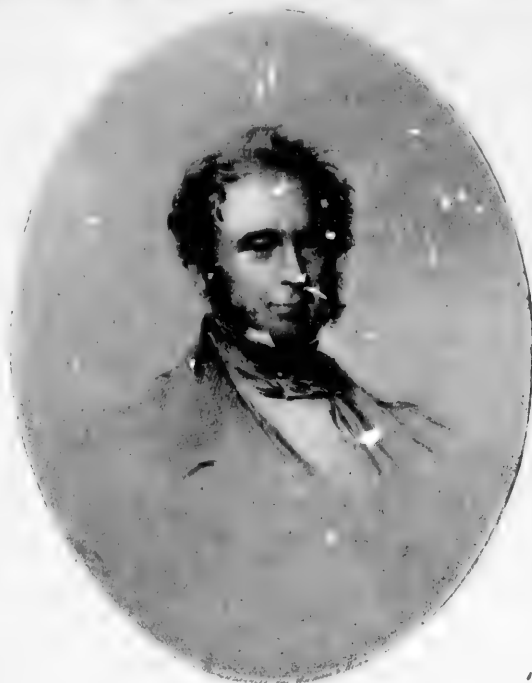
That prophecy is being fulfilled. Canada has continually broadening harvests; her towns and villages are multiplying. She has true constitutional self-government; and she dreams yet of a confederated empire. She has added page after page of honorable history to the annals of the mother country. She has not only met troubles within her own borders, but has stretched forth a helping hand to the mother country in time of need.

The Canadian Rebellion of 1837 was brought about through a combination of various forces. Its most prominent leaders were Louis J. Papineau in Lower Canada, and William Lyon Mackenzie in Upper Canada. Both professed to be animated only by a desire to free the country from the burdens imposed upon it by the ruling classes. The malcontents had certainly much cause for dissatis-

faction. But the majority of the people were not prepared to go to the extreme of resorting to arms, as the leaders found to their cost; the people believed that constitutional agitation would have secured the ends sought for. The rebellion in Lower Canada was speedily crushed, and Papineau fled across the border. In Upper Canada the insurgents threatened Toronto, but were easily routed; though several lives on both sides were sacrificed. The leaders fled to the border. Mackenzie here rallied his scattered forces, and associating with himself many others of lawless character from Canada, and the States of New York, Maine and Vermont, made actual war on Canada, and took possession of Navy Island, belonging to England, in the Niagara River. The steamboat *Caroline* was employed by them to transport from the United States men, ammunitions and stores to Navy Island, to be used in the attack on the British Provinces. In December, 1837, the British organized an expedition to capture the *Caroline*, expecting to find her at Navy Island; but when the commanding officer came round the point of the island in the night, he found that she was moored to the American shore. The circumstance, however, did not prevent him from making the capture. In the fray, a citizen of the United States, by the name of Dufree, lost his life; the British authorities said by a chance shot from one of his own party; the Americans, by a shot from the British party. Mr. Forsyth, United States Secretary of State, made the matter a subject of communication to Mr. Fox, the British Ambassador at Washington, who avowed it as an act done by order of the British authorities, and justified it as a proper and necessary means of self-defence. After this, the subject was suffered to lie and grow cold. In Canada the authorities adopted stern measures to effectually end the disturbances. On all sides the insurgents were crushed, jails were filled with their leaders, and 180 were sentenced to be hanged. Some of them were executed and some were banished to Van Dieman's Land, while others were pardoned on account of their youth. But there was a great revulsion of feeling in Britain, and, after a few years, pardons were extended to almost all. Even Papineau and Mackenzie, the leaders of the rebellion, were allowed to come back, and both were elected to seats in the Canadian Assembly. They, however, confined themselves for the future to constitutional agitation.

In November, 1840, the *Caroline* question was re-opened by an important and exciting occurrence. Alexander McLeod, one of the persons said to be concerned in the capture of the *Caroline*, was in the State of New York, whose people

were much irritated over the affair, and rather foolishly boasted of the part taken by him in that attack. He was arrested by the State authorities on the charge of the murder of Durfree, and committed to prison. Mr. Fox made an instant demand for his release, alleging the destruction of the *Caroline* as a public act of persons obeying the orders of their superiors, and for which they were not responsible. Mr. Forsyth replied in a note of December 26, 1840,



LORD PALMERSTON.

Born 1784—Died 1865.

declaring that "the public nature of the offence had not before been communicated to the Government of the United States by a person authorized to make an admission." And though it was not easy to reconcile this language with the real facts in the case, Mr. Forsyth took the ground that it would be for the Courts to decide on the validity of the defence: that, in fact, the United States

Government could not interfere with the internal concerns of the State of New York, or with the action of its authorities.

Fortunately for Great Britain, Lord Palmerston was at the head of the Foreign Office. Some years later, speaking in Parliament, he laid down his policy in foreign affairs. He said: "Influence abroad is to be maintained only by the operation of one or other of two principles—hope and fear. We ought to teach the weaker powers to hope that they will receive the support of this country in their time of danger. Powerful countries should be taught to fear that they will be resisted by England in any unjust acts, either towards ourselves or towards those who are bound in ties of amity with us."

Lord Palmerston carried out this policy in the case of the *Caroline*, as shown by the following letter being sent to Mr. Fox:

"MY DEAR SIR,

"FOREIGN OFFICE, February 9th, 1841.

"We most entirely approve the tone you have taken and the language you have held about the affair of Mr. McLeod, and so do the public in general. There never was a matter upon which all parties—Tory, Whig, and Radical—more entirely agreed; and if any harm should be done to McLeod the indignation and resentment of all England will be extreme. Mr. Van Buren should understand this, and that the British nation will never permit a British subject to be dealt with as the people of New York propose to deal with McLeod, without taking a signal revenge upon the offenders. McLeod's execution would produce war, war immediate and frightful in its character, because it would be a war of retaliation and vengeance.

"It is impossible that Mr. Forsyth can wish to bring upon the two countries such a calamity, and we can have no doubt that he will prevent it. He must have the means of doing so, or else the Federal Union exists but in name. But I presume that if we can tell him that in the event of McLeod's execution we should make war upon the State of New York, he would reply that in such case we should *ipso facto* be at war with the rest of the Union. But if that is so, the rest of the Union must have the means of preventing the State of New York from doing a thing which would involve the whole Union in war with England. Forsyth's doctrine is pure nullification doctrine; but that is what he cannot intend to maintain.

"I have spoken most seriously to Stevenson (the United States Minister in

London) on this matter, and have told him, speaking not officially, but as a private friend, that if McLeod is executed there must be war. He said he quite felt it; that he is aware that all parties have but one feeling on the subject, and he promised to write to the President privately as well as officially by to-day's post."

Great excitement prevailed both in the United States and Great Britain. Paris was equally excited. Gen. Cass, the American Minister at Paris, thought that the dispute with the United States was of a very serious character, nor did he see how it could well be arranged in a satisfactory manner.

Among the British residents at Paris, the official report to Congress with the spiteful spirit evinced in the debates gave great cause for apprehension that war would be with difficulty avoided.

In the United States, "patriot societies" and "hunters' lodges" threatened every moment the peace of the borders.

The storm, however, blew over. No doubt the determined stand taken by Palmerston had a great moral effect.

McLeod was tried at Utica, in the following October; and the jury, by a verdict of "Not guilty," cut a knot which seemed at first likely to yield only to the sword.

In connection with this matter, Mr. Raikes quotes the following letter written to him by a loyal British subject: "You will be as much disgusted as we all are here with the report of the Committee of Congress; but well-informed people are very sanguine as to the new Government putting matters on a better footing; and do not apprehend any ultimate rupture. But, what a people they are! What a result exhibited to the world of an unrestrained, unrestrainable democracy. The experience of all time, and the transactions of all other countries, make me cling with more pertinacious attachment to the institutions of my own country, at once sound, solid, and expansive, not in the narrowest, but in the most enlarged comprehension of their scope and spirit; and, above all, I become more and more imbued with the conviction that in the aristocratical elements of our social and political position is the root of all good, and the real source of our superiority and our greatness."

Events which followed the close of the Civil War in the United States brought sorrow to many a Canadian home, and trouble and expense to the Government of Canada. Colonel O'Neill, one of the leaders of what was known as

the Fenian Conspiracy, readily enlisted a number of hot-headed Irishmen, mostly soldiers who had served in the United States army, and announced his intention of striking a blow at Britain by invading Canada. This was exasperating to Canadians, and they determined to give the invaders a warm reception. Preparations for the invasion were carried on in the United States for months; yet the United States authorities took no decisive steps to stop the trouble. As early as the 20th of November, 1865, three battalions of Canadian volunteers, each of 650 men, or some 2,000 in all, were under arms and on guard duty at Windsor, Fort Erie, and other points on both Canadian frontiers, it being rumored that a raid might momentarily be expected. On the 10th of March, 1866, rumors of a more alarming nature were abroad, and 10,000 men were placed under arms, by the Canadian authorities. But the affair was as yet only a matter of rumor. On the night of 31st of May, however, the long-threatened raid took place. Some nine hundred men, under Colonel O'Neill, crossed from Buffalo to the Canadian port of Fort Erie; their ostensible object being to advance and destroy the Welland Canal. The Canadian Government at once despatched volunteers from Toronto and Hamilton; while the 16th Regiment of British regulars, under Colonel Peacocke was also hurried to the scene. But, to use the words of Tennyson, "some one had blundered." The volunteers and regulars did not unite as agreed upon. The volunteers engaged the Fenians near the village of Ridgeway. After two hours fighting the volunteers retired with a loss of nine killed and thirty wounded; the enemy also suffering severely. There was intense dissatisfaction among the volunteers at the order to retire. Many of them swore roundly and loudly cursed their luck at being under the command of incompetent and inexperienced officers. The warm reception accorded the Fenians by the volunteers had its effect, and evidently upset Colonel O'Neill's plans. The Fenians retreated; recrossed to the United States, and the Fenian raid on the Niagara frontier was practically over. A monument in Queen's Park, Toronto, is Canada's tribute to the brave soldiers who lost their lives at that time in defending their country.

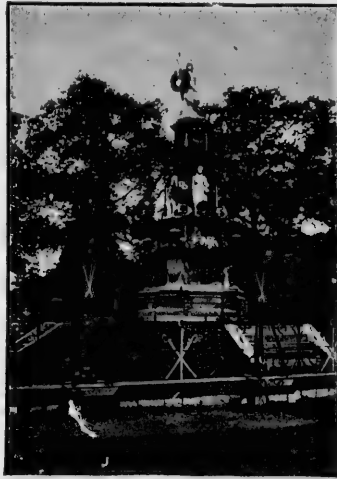
An attack was also made on Prescott, the aim being to reach the capital; while another band of marauders crossed the border from St. Albans, Vermont; but both attacks were easily repulsed.

On reaching United States territory, after retreating across the Niagara River, Colonel O'Neill and a few of his raiders were arrested by the United States

authorities. But political pressure was brought to bear upon the President, and the prosecutions against O'Neill and his companions were quietly dropped.

To show his contempt for this clemency Colonel O'Neill led a second attempt on the Lower Canada frontier in 1870, but was easily repulsed. The United States authorities promptly arrested the fugitives. Clemency was, however, again extended to them, and they were soon released. Result : once again the same misguided leader made another invasion in 1871 ; this time on the more westerly Province of Manitoba.

Rumors that the Fenians were preparing to invade Manitoba were abroad weeks before the raid was made. But it was difficult to secure full particulars promptly ; at that time there was no telegraph line to the Northwest. When word was received at Ottawa that the raid had actually taken place the Government took prompt action. An order was issued to send two hundred volunteers from Eastern Canada to meet the invaders.



THE VOLUNTEERS' MONUMENT.

Queen's Park, Toronto.

Eastern Canada was kept in Manitoba for a year, as a precautionary measure. At the end of the year it was replaced by another force of the same number of men from Eastern Canada. This second force remained on duty for a few years. The necessity for maintaining such a force led the Dominion Government in 1873 to organize a Mounted Police Force, which is popularly known as the Northwest Mounted Police. Since its formation this force has done excellent service in the interest of law and order.

The United States received some fifteen millions of dollars from Great Britain as damages for the "Alabama" Claims.

This force was hurriedly organized, and left Collingwood one week after the issue of the order. On their arrival at Winnipeg it was found that the United States troops had followed the Fenians across the border into Canada, and arrested their leader. Thus the last Fenian raid had come to an inglorious and ignoble end.

The relief force from

Canada has never received any compensation from the United States for the Fenian raids.

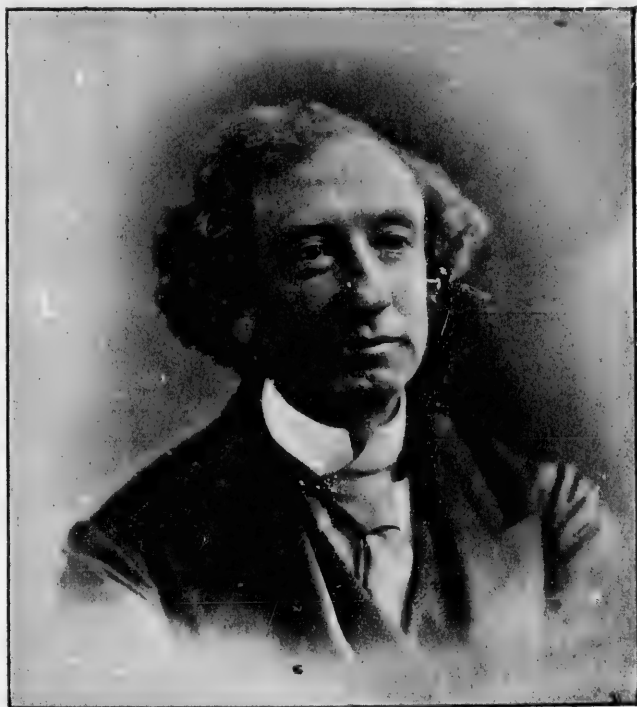
In 1869 the Canadian Government were to assume control of the great region heretofore under the control of the Hudson's Bay Company. The Company was to be paid \$1,500,000 for their lands—lands, which six years earlier had been valued by the Company at \$5,000,000. But trouble arose over the transfer. In this matter, as in so many others, the Colonial Office caused trouble by its hesitating and faltering policy. Sir Stafford Northcote, the Chairman of the Hudson's Bay Company, came to Canada to arrange about the transfer. After his arrival at Ottawa we learn that "the shabby behaviour of the Home Government in the whole affair was the point on which he found it most easy to agree with the Canadian statesmen. The English Government should have settled all questions before the transfer to Canada." The trouble finally culminated in a disturbance which has been dignified by the name of the Riel Rebellion of 1870. Louis Riel, who had seized the reins of power, tried Thomas Scott as a rebel against his authority and had him shot at Fort Garry.

An expedition, comprising some four hundred British regulars and seven hundred Canadian volunteers, was despatched to the scene under the leadership of Colonel (now Lord) Wolseley. But when the expedition reached Fort Garry it was found that Riel and his followers had fled. Colonel Wolseley managed the advance of his force so adroitly that he took the insurgents quite by surprise. They had just time to reach some flat-bottomed boats that were lying on the river's bank and make their escape. As a proof of the hurry in which the insurgents left it is only necessary to say that the officers of the relief expedition sat down and eat the breakfast which had been prepared for Riel and his companions. Riel having fled, the outbreak was at an end, and the transfer of the territory was completed without further trouble.

In 1885, the half-breeds and Indians in the Northwest, led by Riel, again caused trouble. They rose in open rebellion, seizing stores and demanding the surrender of Fort Carlton. On receipt of this news at Ottawa, prompt steps were taken to suppress the outbreak. Ten thousand volunteers responded to the call to arms, but only four thousand were selected. The insurrection began on the 18th of March. On the 23rd, the Premier announced the news in Parliament. On the 25th, the first troops left Winnipeg. On the 30th, 500 picked soldiers left Toronto, followed at short intervals by others, until the whole force had been sent

forward. By the end of July the troops had returned to their homes, having successfully quelled the rebellion. Riel was captured and sentenced to death. He was executed at Regina, on the 16th of November, 1885.

In 1884, Lord Wolseley, in command of the expedition despatched to the relief of Gordon at Kartoum, telegraphed for a contingent of Canadian boatmen, or voyageurs, to navigate the flat-bottomed boats in which the expedition



THE RIGHT HON. SIR JOHN A. MACDONALD, K.C.B.

was to be transported on the Nile. Nearly 500 voyageurs were got together under the command of late Col. Fred. C. Denison, of Toronto. They left Montreal on the 15th of September, 1884, and arrived at Alexandria on the 8th of October. The majority of them had returned to Canada by February, 1885, having as one of them says: "Shown the world that the dwellers on the banks of

the Nile, after navigating it for centuries, could still learn something of the craft from the Iroquois Indians of North America and the Canadian voyageurs of many races."

In later years Canada has expressed her willingness to give men and money to the mother country in time of need. Canadians adopt no tone of aggression. They desire peace, and earnestly hope for a continuance of amicable relations with the world, especially with the great nation on the southern border. But the spirit of their fathers lives eternal in their breasts; like them they have faith in their God, in themselves, and in their country. Thus, to aggressors or disturbers they quote the lines of Mr. Cockin's poem:

"Peace, an' they will—nay more—a friendly hand,
But not one foot of our Canadian land!"

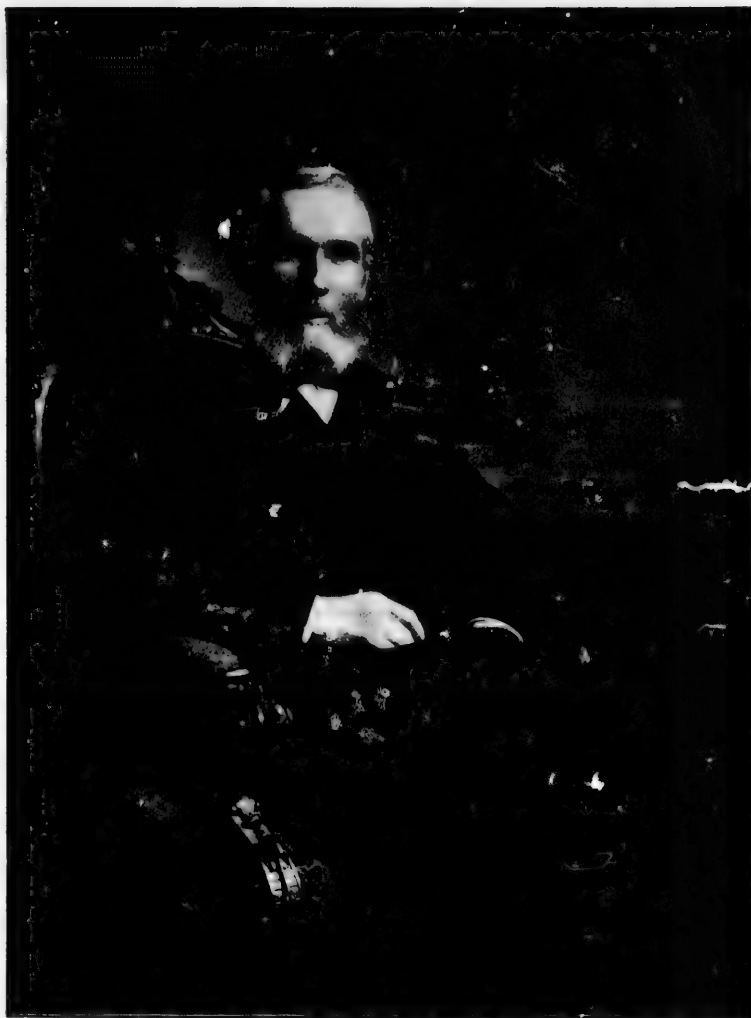
In 1864 a convention was held in the city of Quebec to arrive at an agreement for the union of the provinces of British North America. The following are the names of the delegates, usually called the "Fathers of Confederation," who attended the convention:

CANADA.

- Hon. Sir Etienne P. Taché, Premier.
- " John A. Macdonald, Attorney General, West.
- " Geo. E. Cartier, Attorney General, East.
- " Wm. McDougall, Provincial Secretary.
- " Geo. Brown, President of Council.
- " A. T. Galt, Minister of Finance.
- " Alexander Campbell, Commissioner of Crown Lands.
- " Oliver Mowat, Postmaster General.
- " H. L. Langevin, Solicitor General, East.
- " T. D. McGee, Minister of Agriculture.
- " J. Cockburn, Solicitor General, West.
- " J. C. Chapais, Commissioner of Public Works.

NOVA SCOTIA.

- Hon. Charles Tupper, Provincial Secretary.
- " W. A. Henry, Attorney General.
- " J. McCully.
- " A. G. Archibald.
- " R. B. Dickie.



THE HON. ALEXANDER MACKENZIE

VICTORIA,

NEW BRUNSWICK.

- Hon. S. L. Tilley, Provincial Secretary.
" J. M. Johnston, Attorney General.
" P. Mitchell.
" Charles Fisher.
" E. Chandler.
" W. H. Steeves.
" J. H. Grey.

PRINCE EDWARD ISLAND.

- Hon. Col. Grey, President of Council.
" E. Palmer, Attorney General.
" W. H. Pope, Provincial Secretary.
" G. Coles.
" T. H. Haviland.
" E. Whalen.
" A. A. McDonald.

NEWFOUNDLAND.

- Hon. F. B. S. Carter, Speaker House of Assembly.
" Ambrose Shea.

The negotiations resulted in an agreement to form the Union.

Early in 1867, the Imperial Parliament passed a statute known as the British North America Act of 1867, which came into force on the 1st of July, following. The provinces united in the first instance were Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, Quebec and Ontario. The whole of British North America except Newfoundland and Labrador has since been admitted.

Lord Monck was the first Governor General of the Dominion, and the first Parliament met on the 6th November, Sir John A. Macdonald being Premier. Sir John held office for five years. Hon. Alexander Mackenzie was Premier for the next five years. In 1878, Sir John A. Macdonald again became Premier and held the office continuously till his death in 1891.

The 1st of July or "Dominion Day" is observed each year as a public holiday in commemoration of the union.

Thus Canada took a forward step in the direction of a Confederated Empire.

M. Lesperance, a French Canadian poet, correctly gauged Canadian public feeling in the following stirring lines :

O triune kingdom of the brave,
O sea-girt island of the free,
O Empire of the land and wave,
Our hearts, our hands, are all for thee !
Stand, Canadians, firmly stand,
Round the flag of Fatherland !

In 1871 a Commission assembled at Washington to settle terms of agreement about the "Alabama" and similar claims, about the Canadian fisheries, about the San Juan boundary, and other matters in dispute between Great Britain and the United States. This Commission formulated an agreement known as the Treaty of Washington. Sir John A. Macdonald was the Canadian representative on the Commission. Sir Stafford Northcote (afterwards the Earl of Iddesleigh), one of the British Commissioners, wrote that by April 22 the Canadian Commissioner "seems to think that he has stood out long enough ; certainly it has been longer than our idea of long enough." Does that indicate that if Canada had not been represented, or represented by a weaker man, the claims of Canada would have received less attention, or been the more easily set aside ?

Article XVIII. of the Treaty provided that United States fishermen should, in common with British subjects, have certain liberties on Canadian coasts and shores. The amount to be paid for these liberties was to be settled by arbitration. After prolonged investigation and argument at Halifax, on November 22, 1877, the arbitration commissioners awarded \$5 500,000 compensation. The award was signed by His Excellency Maurice Delfosse, Belgian Minister at Washington, nominated by the Emperor of Austria, and by Sir A. T. Galt, the British Commissioner. The Hon. E. H. Kellog, the United States Commissioner, dissented. The award was paid over to the Imperial authorities by the United States in December, 1878, and by them apportioned : To Canada, \$4,490,882 ; to Newfoundland, \$1,009,118. The money became the basis upon which the bounty to fishermen of \$150,000 was given in 1882, and increased to \$160,000 in 1891.

Sala, in his "Recollections," gives an excellent pen-picture of the inimitable Thomas D'Arcy McGee. Writing in 1864, Mr. Sala says : "Animated debates were going on in the Legislature at Quebec on the subject of the Federation of all the British North American Colonies. One of the most animated speakers on the subject of the proposed union was the late D'Arcy McGee, a singularly gifted, accomplished, and amiable native of the Sister Isle. Good-looking, elo-

quent of speech, and a ready writer, he had been in his early days, when he was green of judgment, a Young Irishman; but, emigrating to Canada, had become a staunch Loyalist, and when I knew him he was Minister of Agriculture. It was his mournful fate, ultimately, to be murdered by a Fenian. D'Arcy McGee and I were great cronies; and I am indebted to him for one of the drollest electioneering stories that ever I heard. It was at Montreal, at the height of some electoral contest for the representation of the city, that one of the candidates had convened a meeting of the negro electors, who, in the early stages of the meeting, seemed far from favourable to him. He went on speaking, however, and dwelt over and over again on the then burning tariff question, telling his hearers that what they chiefly needed was a carefully-adjusted system of *ad valorem* duties. Now it chanced that there had just entered the hall a young 'nigger' waiter from an adjacent restaurant, who held under one arm another waiter, but a dumb one—a japanned tin tray, in fact. The negroes are very fond of rhythm; they like sound without troubling themselves much concerning sense, and somehow or another the words *ad valorem* tickled the ears of the young darkey from the restaurant. 'Ad valorem! ad valorem! ad valorem!' he repeated in rapid crescendo, rapping meanwhile the japanned tin tray with a door-key. It was as though he had sounded the loud timbrel over Egypt's Dark Sea. 'Ad valorem! ad valorem!' the whole audience began to shout, to scream, and to yell, clapping meanwhile their hands, and stamping their feet on the ground. Then there arose an aged negro of great influence in political circles at Montreal, who thus addressed his hearers: 'My brudders, we must all vote for old Ad Valorem; bully for you, Ad Valorem!' The candidate was returned by a thumping majority, and was ever after known as 'good old Ad Valorem.'

Canada enjoys the unique distinction of having had a ruler of a Province who held the reigns of office longer than any other Premier in English history. Sir Oliver Mowat became Attorney-General and Premier of the Province of Ontario in 1872, and held office continuously until his resignation in 1896 to assume the office of Minister of Justice in the Laurier Administration at Ottawa.

Hon. Wilfrid Laurier, the present Premier of the Dominion, is the first French-Canadian to hold that office. The honorable gentleman is a pleasing public speaker; has a fine, commanding presence; and is popular with all classes.

A few other important events in Canadian history during the Victorian era may be mentioned.

The first railway in Canada was opened in July, 1836.

The Earl of Durham was appointed Governor-General of Canada in January, 1838. He had a disagreement with the Home authorities over his treatment of those who participated in the rebellion of 1838. He issued an ordinance prohibiting the return of banished rebels under pain of death. For this he was censured by the Home Government. The ordinance was annulled in October. In the



SIR OLIVER MOWAT, K.C.M.G.

Minister of Justice, Canada.

same month he wrote justifying his conduct, and resigning his position. He was succeeded by Sir John Colborne.

In 1841 Upper and Lower Canada were re-united. Canada had been divided into Upper and Lower Canada in 1791

In 1850 there was a serious riot in Montreal. A bill had been introduced by a new Reform government to compensate those who had suffered loss through

the rebellion of 1838. It was said that some of those who made claims for compensation had been engaged on the side of the rebels. This enraged the Tories beyond endurance. On the afternoon of April 23, the Governor, Lord Elgin, after agreeing to the Rebellion Losses Bill, was assaulted as he was leaving the Assembly. The vice-regal carriage got away, however, before serious injury was done to anybody. That same evening the crowd surged up to the parliament buildings, loading the names of Lord Elgin and the ministry with blasphemous and obscene epithets. The windows were attacked with stones, after which some hundreds of the mob rushed into the building. The Assembly was sitting in committee when the visitors burst through the doors. The members fled in dismay, some taking refuge in the lobbies, and others behind the Speaker's chair. Then the rioters passed on to their work. Some wrecked furniture, others wrenched the legs off chairs, tables and desks, while some demolished chandeliers, lamps and globes. In the midst of the riot and destruction there was a cry of "Fire!" Flames were then found in the balcony; and almost simultaneously the legislative council chamber was ablaze. The party left the building, which in a few minutes was doomed. There was little time to save any of the contents, and out of 20,000 volumes not more than 200 were saved.

Among the other evils planted in the Constitutional Act of 1791, were the provisions for granting a seventh of the Crown lands in the provinces of Canada for the support of "the Protestant clergy," and the establishment of rectories in every township or parish, "according to the establishment of the Church of England." The heads of other Protestant denominations met to protest against the injustice. The words "a Protestant clergy" excluded the Dissenters, whom all imperial statutes ignored; but the Presbyterians maintained they came within the meaning of the words. The law officers of the Crown, on pondering the question, said the Presbyterians were correct in their view. In 1836, Sir John Colborne was recalled to England, but before his departure endowed forty-four rectories. To each such rectory was allotted about three hundred and eighty-six acres of land. The discontent at this action soon reached such a head that a complete secularization of the reserves was demanded by the Reform party. The question was discussed on the hustings and in the legislature with much passion. Mr. Henry Price, a Congregationalist, described the reserves as "one of the greatest curses that could have been inflicted upon the land." But the Tories showed no inclination to disturb the arrangement. On the contrary, to

them, like to the framers of the act of 1791, establishment was one of the dearest features of our government. When the Reformers came into office in 1848 the champions of secularization were filled with hope; but it was not till 1853 that the reserves were abolished by Imperial statute.

In 1854 a treaty between the United Kingdom and United States, as to the fisheries and commerce of North America, was successfully negotiated.

In May, the Governor, Lord Elgin, Mr. Francis Hincks and several others went to Washington to conclude the terms. At first their mission threatened to turn out a failure. They were assured that the Democrats, who had a majority in the Senate, were opposed to the proposed Treaty. Nothing daunted, as Mr. Laurence Oliphant, who was private secretary to Lord Elgin, tells us, "Lord Elgin and his staff approached the representatives of the American nation with all the legitimate wiles of accomplished and astute diplomacy. Lord Elgin became exceedingly popular. In the course of ten days he was able to inform the United States President that if the Treaty was introduced it would now pass the Senate. The Treaty was introduced and passed. On the 5th of June the Treaty was signed by Lord Elgin on behalf of Great Britain, and W. L. Marcy, Secretary of State for the United States, on behalf of the Republic. Lord Elgin's enemies afterwards described the Treaty as "floated through on champagne." "Without altogether admitting this, there can be no doubt," Oliphant drily observes, "that, in the hands of a skilful diplomatist, liquor is not without its value."

By the provisions of the Treaty, citizens of the United States were permitted to take fish of any kind except shell-fish on the sea-coasts and shores, and in the bays, harbors, and creeks of British provinces in North America, at any distance from the shore; and to land upon the shores to dry their nets and cure their fish. In return for these privileges British subjects were allowed the same concessions in all the waters and upon the land of the eastern sea-coasts and shores of the United States, north of the 36th parallel of north latitude. The navigation of the St. Lawrence and the Canadian canals was permitted to American citizens on the same conditions as to British subjects; and the latter were given similar rights on Lake Michigan. No export duty was to be levied on any lumber cut in districts in Maine watered by tributaries of the St. John River, and floated down the latter to the bay of Fundy for shipment to the United States. Certain goods were also admitted reciprocally free of duty—grain, flour, breadstuffs, animals, meats, poultry, fish, lumber, hides, hemp, ores of metals, manufactured

tobacco, and other articles—the unmanufactured produce of the farm (including animals), the forest, the fisheries and the mine.

The Treaty seems to have been popular for the first few years following its adoption. Mr. Goldwin Smith thinks it fell a victim to the anger which the behaviour of a party in England had excited in America. If this be true, it reflects little credit on the politicians at Washington. It savours too much of Col. O'Neill's tactics—striking a blow at a party in England through Canada. Public opinion in England was quite sharply divided between the North and South at the time of the rebellion. Mr. Smith is probably mistaken. From 1860 to the time of its abrogation, the Treaty was the subject of frequent controversy at Washington between the friends and opponents of the reciprocity policy. Discussions, more or less exhaustive, took place in 1860, 1862, 1864, and 1865. Finally, on January 18th, 1865, the President agreed to a resolution from the Senate of the United States calling for an unconditional abrogation of the Treaty, as, in the words of the resolution, "it is no longer for the interests of the United States to continue the same in force."

Canada was still willing to cultivate friendly relations with the United States. Four delegates from the British provinces arrived at Washington January 24th, 1866, to endeavor to effect an arrangement for the continuance of the Treaty. Several days were spent in negotiations, without, however, any success, and the delegates left Washington on the 6th of February. By formal notice from the President of the United States, the Treaty terminated on the 17th of March, 1866. This is an historical fact worth remembering.

In December, 1861, on account of the complications likely to arise over the "Trent" affair, the British Government sent three thousand troops to Canada. Happily, their services were not needed. In November, 1871, the last battalion of British troops, except the garrison at Halifax, left Canada.

On the 8th of November, 1885, the first through train over the Canadian Pacific Railway was run from Montreal in Eastern Canada to Vancouver, on the Pacific Coast, a distance of about 2,900 miles.

Not yet is it possible to measure the whole magnitude of Britain's service to India. Before this can be done generations must elapse. When the hour does come it will be seen that the Anglo-Saxon has never been wiser or greater on the Thames or the St. Lawrence than on the Ganges and the Indus. It is a Frenchman—Saint Hilaire Barthelemy—with his memories of the failure of

France in India, who writes of England's rule in India: "Neither in the Vedic times, nor under the great Azoka, nor under the Mohammedan conquest, nor under the Moguls, all-powerful as they were for a while, has India ever obeyed an authority so sweet, so intelligent, and so liberal."

Looking at the India of to-day and comparing it with what it was, we may say with confidence that Britain has been a blessing to the helpless continent. She conquered, but she saved.

Britain's rule has united India. It is the purest fiction that there were ancient dynasties which the British broke up. The land was one great tangled skein of races, languages and new governments.

For centuries, through the two narrow mountain gateways, at the north-east and the north-west, daring armies, merciless, poured down upon the plains of India, sweeping away thrones, laws, cities; ruling for a while, only to be in turn displaced and destroyed. Britain's strong hand was the first to close up the northern gateways and stay the tide of invading murder. Britain swept from the seas the pirates who pressed up the rivers or plied along the shores, levying ransom or dealing desolation and death. For Britain's task was not merely to conquer, but to hold and set in motion the forces for a homogeneous Indian nation. The work was in rapid progress when the mutiny of 1857 broke out. That was the last disintegrating spasm. From that time to the present every step has been toward a united people. The old causes for internal separation are constantly disappearing. The Indian is beginning to feel that he is the member not of a tribe, but of a race; that he is not the slave of a rajah, but the citizen of a nation.

British rule has decreased crime. The will of the ruler used to decide life and death. The laws were instruments of the strong against the weak. Religion sanctified robbery and rapine. A hundred robber castes preyed on the land. The Pindarries swarmed in hordes of twenty thousand horsemen, pillaging without pity. The Thugs were professional murderers. For twenty centuries, under the protection of their goddess Kali, they had plied with holy zeal their strangler's craft. Dakoity, gang-robbery, flourished as late as 1879 in the Deccan. Sati—Hindu widows burning themselves on the funeral-pyres of their husbands—was popularly esteemed a simple duty.

Under British rule the robber clans were broken, Dakoity suppressed. The last Thug was exhibited a few years ago as an interesting relic of the past. Even in the native states Sati is but a memory.

Female infanticide was once an open everyday incident ; now the law punishes it as murder. Child-marriage, with its corollary child-widowhood and all its implications, still survives. Yet, under British influence, the native mind is raising its protest against this domestic curse. In due time it, too, will pass.

In India, with a population constantly increasing, the number of criminals is constantly decreasing.

Even the native princes are watched. Britain is careful to see that her feudatories bear sway subject to the same righteous regulations which govern the territory directly under British rule.

British rule has brought to the millions of India health, comfort and length of days. Wholesome water has been supplied to the great cities. Immense sums have been expended on sanitary works. Diseases that decimated the people have been grappled with, prevented, or mitigated. True, sacred wells still offer to the devout as corrupt a fluid as the idolatry or the ingenuity of man could compound. But the time will come when faith in filthy water shall fade into innocuous desuetude.

In India British rule has fostered existing industries and introduced new. India is to-day a cotton-producing and a cotton-spinning country. Indian tea and Indian quinine are offered on all the markets of the world. Coal-beds have been discovered and profitably worked. Smelting works and foundries are utilising the native ores. The diamonds of Bundlehand, the pearl fisheries of Bahrein, the opals of Ajmere, and the rubies of Burma, continue to supply in no small measure the world's demand.

Under British rule education is provided, freedom of thought is encouraged, liberty of speech is secured.

The sword of Britain was never drawn against one of the least of the thirty million Hindu gods. Therefore, their temples are falling to ruin ; palm trees are thrusting leafy heads through their lofty roofs.

Brahma, Vishnud, Siva, are fleeing to the matted jungles of the plains, to the dim recesses of the forests, to the inaccessible fastness of the mountains. Soon on their vacant thrones shall sit the mild majesty of the White Christ.

In the summer of 1857 news came that thrilled the heart of Britain with horror and rage. It was the first chapter of the story of the Indian, or Sepoy mutiny—a mutiny of the Sepoy army, distinguished from a revolt of the Indian people—a military movement which did not command the sympathies of the



GROUP OF NATIVE INDIAN SOLDIERS.

people except within a limited area. It would have been impossible, had the mutiny elicited the support of the great masses of the population, for the handful of Englishmen scattered over the vast area of India to have held their ground.

Circumstances singularly favored a revolt. The British were unsuspectingly relying upon the fidelity of the Sepoys. Never had the European regiments been so few in proportion to the native regiments. Veteran battalions had been withdrawn to serve in the Crimea. The small remaining force had been still further weakened by the despatch of troops to the seat of war in China. The feeble battalions remaining in India were distributed over wide stretches of country without regard to strategical considerations or probabilities of internal commotion. The disasters which so seriously involved the allied armies in the Crimea had been exaggerated in the bazaars of India, and had led the Sepoy to look upon the military power of England as a thing of the past. Anson, the Commander-in-Chief of the Indian Army, had little experience except upon the turf. Most of the general officers were indolent through age; all were blind to the signs of the coming storm. The single fact that our chief arsenal at Delhi, with its vast store of munitions of war, was practically unprotected by British troops throws a scorching light on the military administration of the day. The men who made the reconquest of India possible were either subalterns or civilians.

While the British watchmen were slumbering in security the natives were aflame with eager hopes. Wild rumors were abroad of the decay of the power of Britain. The year 1857-8 was the year predestined to be fatal to the rule of "John Company." In the native chronology it was the centenary of the victory of Plassy. Then astrologers had declared that the rule of the Company should endure but for a century. The century was up. The Company must go.

Under Dalhousie, the last Governor-General, the natives imagined they had cause to tremble for the security of their religious rights. In the railways, telegraphs, steamships, schools, introduced by him they saw only attacks more or less open upon their religious faith and their social customs. This, of course, was pure fiction. "John Company" and the Home Government had ever been careful to respect the religious beliefs of the natives.

The only time any dispute arose with the Government about caste was when some Sepoy troops were ordered to embark for Burmah. They declined to sail upon the sea, because on board ship they might not be able to keep up the ablu-

tions and other ceremonies required by their religion. Still, it is certain the new innovations were looked upon with great disfavor by the natives. The greased cartridge of the new musket was the last outrage upon their susceptibilities.

All these powerful incitements to revolt came together. The alarm of the native princes; the weakness of the British military establishment; the insulted fanaticism of the people; and the assurance of success based upon the ancient prediction of the astrologers, combined to make rebellion epidemic.

The triangle presented on the map by the peninsula of Hindoostan is well known. The southern part of that peninsula is the Presidency of Madras, the western side the Presidency of Bombay, while the Presidency of Bengal may be loosely said to occupy the centre and northeast of the peninsula. Through it flow the Ganges and the Jumna; it includes what were once the dominions of the Great Mogul. Its chief city is Calcutta, but the great cities of Delhi, Benares, and Agra are in it, too; there, also, is Cawnpore, so famous in the mutiny.

The mutiny was confined to Bengal and to the recently-annexed kingdom of Oudh, on the left bank of the Ganges. Happily it was not joined by the recently-acquired provinces of the Punjaub, conquered by the British barely ten years before. All the chiefs of the Punjaub remained faithful to the British, and nearly all the Sikh Sepoys. The best help the British had in their extremity was from regiments raised in the Punjaub, in which their former gallant foes, the Sikhs, fought on their side.

It is held by men whose competency to judge can hardly be disputed that the men who corrupted the Indian Sepoys and led them into rebellion, were the agents of some of the old princely houses which we had destroyed, or reduced to poverty and shame, such as the representative of the Great Mogul at Delhi, the ex-King of Oudh, and the ever-infamous Nana Sahib. The Great Mogul at Delhi was grandson of a man rescued by the British from a revolted Vizier. He, however, turned against his benefactors, and joined the Mahrattas, was taken prisoner by Scindia, a gallant native chief, and had his eyes gouged out by one of his jailors, in a fit of passion. When the British took Delhi from Scindia this blind unfortunate was restored to his throne. "His palace at Delhi is second only," says Bishop Heber, "to Windsor Castle." He was given an annuity of more than half-a-million of dollars by the Indian Government. He died at the age of eighty-six, and his son succeeded him.

Delhi is a very sacred city. The Great Mogul considered himself a very king of kings. The predecessor of the King of Delhi, in 1857, was once excessively insulted by a British Governor-General of India taking a seat in his presence.

Towards the close of 1856 the military authorities determined to arm the Indian troops with new rifles. The arms were sent out from England. The new cartridges being wrapped in tougher paper than former cartridges, had their paper greased. The end of each cartridge had to be bitten off before putting it into the gun. In January, 1857, at Dum-Dum, a station near Calcutta, the first mutterings of mutiny were heard. There a low caste Lascar, having asked a Brahman of high caste for a draught of water, and having been refused roughly, shouted in his anger: "You will soon lose your caste! You will have to bite cartridges covered with the fat of pigs and cows!"

The Brahman related this story to his comrades. With the wonderful rapidity which marks the secret dissemination of news in India, it spread from station to station until every Sepoy in Bengal was familiar with it. It excited great horror and indignation. Only those familiar with the native character can understand this feeling. Overt proof of the strength of passion aroused was soon afforded at Barrackpore, a military station only six miles from Calcutta, where, night after night, the sky reddened with incendiary flames. At Berhampore a native regiment mutinied; but, by a prompt display of energy, was summarily reduced to obedience. From point to point flowed the wave of insubordination, until the extent of the area it covered alarmed the Government. An inquiry into its causes was ordered to be instituted.

Official inquiries, however, generally drag along slowly. The continued evidences of a growing mutinous spirit should have alarmed those in authority. But such was not the case. On the contrary, the authorities deliberately shut their eyes to the danger. Loyal natives warned them to prepare. Civilian officials warned them that mutiny was in the air. But all was in vain. No preparations were made to meet the coming storm. A few native regiments were disbanded; the military authorities thought this would end the trouble. So certain were they on this point that on the 1st of May the *Bombay Gazette* had confidently asserted "India is quiet throughout." A terrible awakening was in store for them.

A mutiny broke out at Meerut, near Delhi. The outbreak was ostensibly over the greased cartridges. The mutiny was suppressed. Eighty of the mutineers

were tried and condemned. This sentence was read to the whole force, May 9th, 1857. The prisoners, stripped of their uniforms, were fettered, and marched from the parade ground to the common jail, which contained about two thousand malefactors. Still, the authorities shut their eyes to any possibility of further trouble. No especial precautions were taken for the safety of the station. The next day was Sunday. The European troops attended morning service, and then had their dinners as usual. A little later the officers and the ladies were preparing to go to evening service. The chaplain was driving there in his buggy. All was as it had been every Sunday, in every station in India, for years past, when suddenly there opened the first act of the terrible tragedy of the Great Mutiny.

The men of the Third Light Native Cavalry broke into sudden, but evidently not unpremeditated, revolt. They rushed from their tents and mounted their horses. A party galloped to the jail, overpowered the guard, and liberated the prisoners. Then, calling on all the other Sepoys to join them, they commenced an indiscriminate attack on the Europeans. Officers, women and children were butchered and mutilated, and their houses set on fire. The officer in command of the British troops in the cantonments became panic-stricken.

The mutinous natives were allowed to continue their work of murder and rapine during the whole of the following night without interruption from the British troops. This inexplicable, this criminal inactivity must be regarded as the parent of most of the disasters which fill so dark a page in the history of our Anglo-Indian empire. When the Sepoys and the wretches released from jail had finished their work they marched off to Delhi.

Early on the morning of the 12th the rebels arrived at Delhi, where, gathering tumultuously beneath the old King's palace-windows, they loudly demanded admission, and called upon him to help them, proclaiming that they had killed the British at Meerut, and had come to fight for "the faith." The Sepoy regiments of the ancient city at once adopted their cause and their cry. The mutineers were allowed to enter through the principal gate of the city. Fraternizing with the mutineers within the city, and, falling upon the undefended Europeans, they revelled in an orgie of blood and rapine. So furious was their temper that the King fell into a panic of alarm for his own safety. With reeking swords in their hands the murderers rushed from place to place, boasting of their hellish deeds, and calling upon others to follow their example.

The terrible incidents of this opening act of the great mutiny have been

told by a hundred writers. Mr. Fraser, the British Resident, was among the first of those killed. Every European that could be found was ruthlessly slaughtered. A few saved themselves by flight. Half-a-million pounds of Government money was seized. When it was seen that Delhi was practically in the hands of the rebels, Lieutenants Willoughby and Forrester blew up the great Delhi magazine, to prevent its vast military stores from falling into their possession.

Soon all Bengal was in a flame, with the imperial city for the focus of the insurrection and its stronghold. Calcutta was barely kept down. The authorities there refused to believe in the disaffection of the Sepoys. They authorized the withdrawal of the objectionable cartridges, but they did not disarm the Sepoy regiments. All through the earlier stages of the mutiny the officers of the native regiments always insisted that their own men were staunch. Many had served with their men for twenty years, through toil and danger, and believed them true to the last moment. In many instances officers persisted in trusting their own Sepoys till the murderous shot was fired and they fell dead.

Lord Canning was Governor-General of India, and Sir John Lawrence was the supreme ruler of the Punjaub, at the outbreak of the mutiny. There was consternation at Lahore when this terrible telegram was received from Delhi: "The Sepoys have come in from Meerut, and are burning everything. Mr. Todd is dead, and, we hear, several Europeans. We must shut up. . . ." That was all. The operator had time to give a word of warning, then he had to flee for his life. Lord Canning saw there was no possibility of sending up a British army from Calcutta. Yet both Canning and Lawrence urged the necessity of immediate action. Momentous political considerations were involved in the recapture of Delhi. The recapture of Delhi was determined upon. Some officers were still inclined to trust the Sepoys, but Lawrence was not among the number. He believed in the fidelity of his own province, but was not willing to trust the Sepoys. He disarmed every Sepoy regiment in the Punjaub. When a Sepoy regiment was found to be disaffected, it was assembled upon its parade-ground, and so placed as to have European troops and loaded cannon facing it. Then the men were ordered to pile their arms, and in every instance did so.

Lawrence next proceeded to put all the resources of his province at the disposal of the officers conducting the siege of Delhi. He drained the Punjaub of its best officers and its most trustworthy troops. By enlisting Punjaubees, he converted those who might have been disaffected into aids to the British, and committed them to the British cause.



NANA SAHIB.

Anson, with the rear-guard of his little army, began the march on Delhi on the 25th of May; but the next day he was seized with cholera and died in a few hours. Sir Harry Barnard, his successor, pushed forward with energy, leaving orders for a siege-train to be hurried to the scene of action. On the 7th of June he reached Alipur. Here he was joined by a brigade from Meerut, under Colonel (afterwards Sir Archdale) Wilson, who on his march had fought two engagements with the rebels, and beaten them soundly. The siege-train having arrived, he advanced, on the 8th, to within six miles of Delhi, where the Sepoys were posted in force.

The city was strongly fortified. The walls, which were of exceptional solidity, and defended by numerous bastions, as well as by a dry ditch, twenty-eight feet broad and twenty deep, extended over a circuit of seven miles, and averaged twenty-four feet in height. Each of its ten gates was surmounted by towers; the three against which the British mainly directed their attack were the Kashmir, the Moree, and the Cabul. The fort of Selimghur was a strong outwork, the guns of which commanded the river-approach; and the mass of buildings enclosed within the palace area afforded great facilities for defence. A force of 30,000 Sepoys, trained soldiers, accustomed to European discipline, and abundantly supplied with arms, ordnance, ammunition, and provisions was behind the walls. The British force consisted of only 3,000 troops. This small force could do little but wait for reinforcements. From being besiegers, they in turn were besieged by thousands of other Sepoys who were making their way to Delhi.

Reinforcements came slowly forward. By September, over 8,000 men were under the British generals. It was determined to make a combined assault on the city. The attack by artillery began on September 7th. By the 12th inst., two breaches had been made in the city walls. It was decided to assault the city from four points. The British fully realised the momentous issues which hung upon their success.

"It was three in the morning," says Colonel Malleon, in his history of the Mutiny; "the columns of assault were in the leash. In a few moments they would be slipped. What would be the result? The moment was supreme. Would the skill and daring of the soldiers of England triumph against superior numbers, defending and defended by stone walls? Or would rebellion, triumphing over the assailants, turn its triumph to still greater account, by inciting by its means to its aid the Punjaub and other parts of India still quivering in the

balance? That indeed was the question. Delhi was in itself the smallest of the results to be gained by a successful assault. The fate of India was in the balance. The repulse of the British would entail the rising of the Punjaub."

The skill and daring of the soldiers of Britain did triumph over superior numbers and stone walls. The blowing up of the Kashmir Gate will live as one of the noblest deeds on record in military history. It is described by Colonel Baird Smith: "The party advanced at the double towards the Kashmir Gate, Lieutenant Home, with Sergeants Smith and Carmichael, and Havildar Mahore, with all the sappers, leading and carrying the powder bags, followed by Lieutenant Salkeld and a portion of the remainder of the party. The advanced party reached the gateway unhurt, and found that part of the drawbridge had been destroyed; but passing along the precarious footway supplied by the remaining beams, they proceeded to lodge their powder bags against the gate. The wicket was open, and through it the enemy kept up a heavy fire upon them. Sergeant Carmichael was killed while laying his powder bag, Havildar Mahore being at the same time wounded. The powder being laid, the advanced party slipped down into the ditch to allow the firing party, under Lieutenant Salkeld, to perform its duty. While endeavoring to fire the charge, Lieutenant Salkeld was shot through the arm and leg, and handed over the slow match to Corporal Burgess, who fell mortally wounded just as he had accomplished the onerous duty. Havildar Tellah Sing, of the Sikhs, was wounded, and Ramlell, Sepoy of the same corps, was killed during this part of the operation. The demolition being most successful, Lieutenant Home, happily not wounded, caused the bugler to sound the regimental call of the 52nd, as the signal for the advancing columns. Fearing that, amid the noise of the assault, the sounds might not be heard, he had the call repeated three times, when the troops advanced and carried the gateway with complete success."

By evening of the next day the British, after a fierce struggle, had gained the outer portion of the city. Several days of desperate street-fighting followed. The palace was reached; its gates were blown open with gunpowder; a few fanatics who had remained in it were slaughtered. The British flag was hoisted, and the city of the Moguls, now resembling a city of the dead, was in the hands of the British conquerors.

The old King of Delhi and his three sons had escaped. Hodson, of Hodson's Horse fame, was informed by a spy where the old King was hidden. Hod-

son went to General Wilson and asked leave to arrest the King. For some time Wilson hesitated. At last it was settled that the King should be promised his life if he surrendered; and Hodson set out with fifty of his troopers. A vast crowd was round the tomb in which the aged King had taken refuge, with his counsellors and his *zenana*. After a two hours' negotiation the old man surrendered. Hodson took away his arms, and made him captive.

Hodson also found the three Princes. No orders to promise them their lives had been given. They endeavored to secure stipulations before surrendering. Hodson curtly refused to make any stipulation at all. At last they yielded. Their situation was desperate, and their last hope appeared to be in British mercy. They set out in a bullock-cart. An immense crowd followed them, and after some time pressed upon their escort, which had been reduced to ten troopers, the others having been sent away. There is little doubt that Hodson hoped that some attempt at rescue might give him an excuse for despatching his prisoners with his own hand; but the attempt at rescue was not made. When about a mile from Delhi he suddenly halted his party, ordered the Princes to get out of the bullock-cart and strip off their upper garments, then, borrowing a carbine, he deliberately shot them all three dead. The horrible atrocities perpetrated on Europeans by the natives was accepted in India as a justification for this deed.

The news of the successful storming of Delhi was received with much thankfulness in every quarter of India. The Governor-General seized upon the occasion to issue a proclamation which it was hoped would have great effect upon the natives. The proclamation ran as follows:

"Delhi, the focus of the treason and revolt which for four months have harassed Hindustan, and the stronghold in which the mutinous army of Bengal has sought to concentrate its power, has been wrested from the rebels. The King is a prisoner in the palace. The headquarters of Major-General Wilson are established in the Dewani Khan. A strong column is in pursuit of the fugitives. Whatever may be the motives and passions by which the mutinous soldiery, and those who are leagued with them, have been instigated to faithlessness, rebellion, and crimes at which the heart sickens, it is certain they have found encouragement in the delusive belief that India was weakly guarded by England, and that before the Government could gather its strength against them their ends would be gained. They are now undeceived. Before a single soldier of the many thousands who are hastening from England to uphold the supremacy of the

British power has set foot on these shores, the rebel force, where it was strongest and most united, and where it had command of unbounded military appliances, has been destroyed, or scattered, by an army collected within the limits of the North-Western Provinces and the Punjaub alone. The work has been done before the support of those battalions which have been collected in Bengal, from the forces of the Queen in China, and in her Majesty's eastern colonies, could reach Major-General Wilson's army, and it is by the courage and endurance of that gallant army alone—by the skill, sound judgment, and steady resolution of its brave commander—and by the aid of some native chiefs, true to their allegiance, that, under the blessing of God, the head of rebellion has been crushed, and the cause of loyalty, humanity, and rightful authority vindicated."

But the crushing of the rebellion at Delhi did not by any means signify that the mutiny was at an end. Far from it. The rebellious spirit had spread too fast and too far.

At Agra, prompt measures saved the Europeans from massacre. Agra is, near Delhi, the most important city in the Bengal Presidency. At Agra lived the Lieutenant-Governor and his staff. The city also contained many missionary establishments—a Roman Catholic bishop, a convent of nuns, several Presbyterian missionaries, and a Government College largely devoted to the education of half-castes, or Eurasians. The people at Agra seemed utterly unprepared for the mutiny.

"Like a thunderclap," says Mr. Farquhar, one of the Company's officers, "the news of the mutiny at Meerut on the 10th of May fell on the Agra community, and turned the whole current of men's thoughts to preparations for the coming struggle. At that time three native and one English regiment were at Agra, with a battery of six guns manned by Europeans. The English force, indeed, was about 600 in all. On Saturday night, May 30, news arrived that some companies of one of the Agra regiments had mutinied at a station thirty-five miles off, and had fired on their English officers. The Agra regiments, notwithstanding their protestations of fidelity to their salt, could no longer be trusted. The authorities resolved to disarm them the next day and send the men to their homes. The next step was to gather together all the Christians, European and Eurasian, in places appointed beforehand as a refuge in case of danger.

"The Sabbath sun rose that morning on a strange scene in the usually well-ordered station of Agra. Instead of early morning church, the troops, native and

English, were assembled on parade, and then the natives, to their great astonishment, found themselves drawn up opposite the European regiment and guns, and were ordered to lay down their arms. The great mass of men obeyed, as they had no time to make any arrangements, and, piling their arms, saw them carted away to the magazine. Mr. Fullarton (an American missionary), with his wife and family, were ordered to a dilapidated bungalow, pitched on the top of an old limekiln, which, from age, was covered with sheltering trees and grass. About ten in the evening I visited them, and there, outside the house, lay groups of gentlemen under the trees, talking quietly over the events of the day, but with loaded double-barrelled guns, and plenty of ammunition at their sides. In the verandahs ladies and native ayahs lay pretty closely packed, while the floors of the rooms inside were strewn with about as many babies and young children as they could readily hold. I saw Mr. Fullarton and some other gentlemen sitting below under one of the trees. The full moon shone through the leaves, and I remember well Mr. Fullarton's face turned up to speak to me, with a look and word of thankfulness for the mercies of the day. At his side, too, lay a double-barrelled gun which some gentleman had given him, knowing well that he would use it in defence of women and children."

Subsequently the six hundred European soldiers were marched out of Agra to meet five thousand mutineers. By mismanagement on the part of their commander, they were forced to retreat back into the Fort without cutting the rebels to pieces, though they scared them off to Delhi. All the Christian population of Agra was then ordered into the Fort, as the lower and dangerous classes in the city were setting fire to bungalows, and committing other excesses. But the lives of the civilians and native Christians, with a few painful exceptions, were saved.

"In this respect," says Mr. Farquahar, "we were immeasurably better off than the people of Cawnpore, Futtehpur, Delhi and other stations. Distressing news from these places harrowed the hearts of the Agra people, whose friends and relations were the sufferers. But Mr. Fullarton and the other American missionaries were most moved by the news from Futtehpur, where there was a flourishing colony of industrious native Christians under charge of American Presbyterian missionaries.

"The English at Futtehpur took refuge in the Fort. There, as death from starvation threatened them, it was resolved to embark upon the Ganges in some

boats stealthily with their women and children, and drop down the river to Cawnpore. They were fired on from the banks when they nearly reached that place, and every one was slaughtered. Then the Sepoys and the mob at Futtchpur set on the Christian village, wrecked it, and slew every Christian they could lay their hands on."

Early in 1857, disaffection had begun to manifest itself in Oudh. The recent annexation of Oudh (in 1856) had alarmed the native princes. Oudh had been loyal to the British, yet Oudh had been annexed; for no reason that could justify the action to the mind of an Oriental. The King of Oudh by his cruel exactions had made life not worth living to the five millions who writhed under his besotted tyranny. His loyalty had proved no cover for his crimes. In his fate the native princes beheld their own, unless they combined to drive the British into the sea.

In March, 1857, when the mutiny was just ripening elsewhere, Sir Henry Lawrence was made Governor of Oudh, and went to Lucknow.

Sir Henry's first endeavor was to conciliate the old Mohammedan aristocracy. In this he succeeded remarkably in six weeks; but he was not slow to detect the rising feeling of mistrust. He saw, and confidential agents told him the same, that it was everywhere believed that the British Government was bent on destroying the caste of Hindoo Sepoys. He knew that to maintain caste inviolate the Hindoo would risk his life, his property, his household, all he most valued in the world. He wrote to Lord Canning, the Governor-General:

"I held a conversation with a Jemadar of the Oudh artillery for more than an hour to-day, and was startled by the dogged persistence of the man (a Brahman, of about forty years of age, of excellent character) in the belief that for ten years past Government had been engaged in measures for the forcible, or rather the fraudulent, conversion of the natives."

Fully conscious of the spirit of disaffection among the natives, and warned by telegraph of the mutiny at Meerut and Delhi, Lawrence adopted energetic measures for the defence of the British Residency at Lucknow. He laid in plentiful supplies of provisions and ammunition. When the trouble came the little garrison was amply supplied with provisions, ammunition, and resources of every kind.

Lucknow lies along the banks of the river Gumti, about fifty miles from Cawnpore. On the 30th May, the native troops stationed around Lucknow mutinied.

Everywhere it was the same story, the European officers of native troops believing in their men to the last moment; the men turning upon them suddenly and killing them. In some instances they were merely ordered off and suffered to gallop back to Lucknow. Sometimes for a while, in particular instances, the Sepoys showed extraordinary fidelity; but their loyalty rarely stood the contact with other regiments that were in full revolt.

The rebels poured into the city. Sir Henry Lawrence and the Europeans were soon shut up in the Residency, surrounded by a howling savage multitude, raging like the sea, and fearfully dangerous, because largely composed of disciplined soldiers.

The revolt became general throughout the Province. Dreadful stories of massacres of Europeans were carried to Lucknow. The sole survivor of one party tells his story: "We were on our way to Arangabad, when suddenly a halt was sounded, and a trooper told us to go on our way where we liked. There were three ladies with us, crammed into one buggy; the remainder lay prone on baggage-carts. We went on for some distance, when we saw a party coming along. They soon joined us and followed the buggy, which we were pushing along with all our might. When we were half-a-mile from Arangabad, a Sepoy sprang forward, snatched Ray's gun from him, and shot down poor old Shiels, who was riding my horse. Then the most infernal struggle ever witnessed by men began. We all collected under a tree close by, and put the ladies down from the buggy. Shots were firing in all directions, amid the most fearful yells. In about ten minutes they had completed their hellish work. They killed the wounded and the children, butchering them in the most cruel ways. All were killed but myself. When we started there were one civilian, three captains, six lieutenants, three ensigns, one sergeant, a bandmaster, eight ladies and five children."

Lawrence, with his stores of provisions and ammunition, was able to hold his own at Lucknow. But he was sore at heart when he thought of those at Cawnpore.

Cawnpore, fifty miles away, but on the other side of the river, had been invested by the rebels. Sir Hugh Wheeler, who was in command, was one of those who trusted too well and too long in Sepoy loyalty. It was only on the most urgent representations that Wheeler consented to take steps to protect the Europeans under his charge. He telegraphed to Lucknow for aid. Unfortunately, at the same time, he invited the assistance of the Maharaja of Bithoor, better

known as the Nana Sahib—his real name was Sirik Dhoondopunt—whose hatred of the British Government and enormous ambition had induced him to favor secretly the designs of the Sepoys, intending to turn them to his own advantage. The Nana was a Mahratta chief, claiming to be the adopted son of the last sovereign of the Mahrattas. When that personage had yielded his dominions to the British, he had been granted a pension of £90,000 a year for himself and for his heirs. He died without issue, but had adopted a short time before his death Dhoondopunt, or Nana Sahib. Lord Dalhousie asserted that the Nana had no claim to the reversion of the pension. The Nana naturally thought he had. Yet, with inconsistency on the part of the British Government, he was allowed to retain his adopted father's title of Peishwar, and to surround himself with troops and guns. The Nana, unfortunately for the British, accepted Wheeler's invitation.

Wheeler built a mud wall four feet high round the buildings which composed the old Military Hospital. While the works were in progress, Azimoolah, the Nana's confidential and unscrupulous agent and emissary, inquired of a British officer: "What do you call that place you are making in the plain?" "I am sure I don't know," said the officer. "It should be called," Azimoolah sarcastically remarked, "The Fort of Despair." "No, no," exclaimed the officer, "we will call it the Fort of Victory"—a proposal received by Azimoolah with an air of incredulous assent.

At length the rising took place. On the 4th of June the native regiments mutinied. The Nana threw aside the mask of friendship. He placed himself at the head of the rebels, who saluted him as their Raja. The rebels proceeded to invest the feeble asylum in which the Europeans of Cawnpore, soldiers and civilians, were prepared to sell their lives dearly. They were accompanied by some natives who had remained true to their flag. In all, about one thousand souls were sheltered in the two single-storied barracks surrounded by Sir Hugh Wheeler's mud wall. Of these 460 were men; their wives and grown-up daughters numbered about 280, and their children nearly as many.

The mutineers were well supplied with arms and heavy cannon. A letter from Sir Hugh Wheeler to Lawrence at Lucknow pathetically describes the horrors of the siege:

"Since the last details, we have had a bombardment in this miserable position three or four times daily; now nineteen days exposed to two twenty-four, and

eight other guns of smaller calibre, and three mortars. To reply with three nines is, you know, out of the question; neither would our ammunition permit it. All our gun-carriages are more or less disabled; ammunition short. British spirit alone remains; but it cannot last forever. Yesterday morning they attempted their most formidable assault, but dared not come on. And after above three hours in the trenches, cheering on the men, I returned to the Fort to find my favorite darling son killed by a nine-pounder in the room with his mother and sisters. He was not able to accompany me, having been fearfully crippled by a severe contusion. The cannonade was tremendous. I venture to assert such a position, so defended, has no example; but cruel has been the evil. We have no instruments, no medicine; provision for ten days at farthest, and no possibility of getting any, as communication with the town is cut off. Railway men and merchants have swollen our ranks to what they are (we had but two hundred and twenty soldiers to begin with), and the casualties have been numerous. The railroad men have done excellent service, but neither they nor I can last forever. We have lost everything belonging to us, and have not even a change of linen. Surely we are not to die like rats in a cage."

Lawrence replied, urging Wheeler to hold out; Europeans and Sikhs were coming to his relief. Above all things, he warned him not to accept terms. "Do not accept terms from the enemy, as I fear treachery. You cannot rely on the Nana's promises." In French, he added, "He has killed many prisoners."

But, alas! before the letter reached Wheeler the capitulation had taken place. The garrison had suffered the horrors of a siege and a bombardment for three weeks. No reinforcements arrived; no tidings were heard of approaching relief. Their provisions were exhausted, and famine seemed to claim them as its victims; their guns were rapidly becoming unserviceable; their supplies of ammunition had dangerously decreased; their numbers were so reduced that they could scarcely find men to guard the weak defences. What was to be done? No one spoke of surrender; yet what other alternative presented itself, unless they could blow up their asylum and perish in its ruins, or plunge into the midst of the besieging hosts, and fall, fighting? At this juncture came a message from the Nana offering terms.

An armistice was arranged, and negotiations with the Nana were then opened. It was agreed that the British should surrender their fortified position, guns and treasure on condition that they were allowed to march out with their arms and

sixty rounds of ammunition for each man ; and that the Nana should escort them safely to the river-side, and furnish boats to carry them down the Ganges to Allahabad.

On the morning of the 27th of June, the British took their departure, the able-bodied marching first, and the wounded being carried in palanquins, while the women and children rode on the backs of elephants or in rough bullock-carriages. Through crowded streets they made their way to the place of embarkation. There the boats were ready, and our people hastened to embark, exulting, probably, in what seemed the near prospect of peace and security. None were prepared for, none expected, the black deed of murderous treachery which has handed down the name and memory of the Nana to perpetual execration. By his direction the Sepoy soldiery had been massed on the banks of the Ganges. As soon as our people were on board the boats a bugle rang out its shrill orders, and a murderous fire of grapeshot and musketry opened upon the fugitives. Four men only, after a series of hair-breadth escapes, contrived to reach the territory of a friendly Raja, who sheltered and supported them. They alone lived to tell the tale of the Nana's treachery, and of the evil doings at Cawnpore. As for the rest of the garrison—every man was killed, with many of the women and children. Those spared were reserved for a still more cruel death.

The Nana enjoyed his hour of triumph. The hated British had been swept away. But before long the unwelcome tidings spread through the palace, and through the barracks of the troops, that a British army, thirsting for revenge, and terrible in its just wrath, was marching against Cawnpore.

Yes, Havelock was marching at the head of a column to the relief of Cawnpore and Lucknow.

Havelock fought his way bravely against heavy odds. Futtehpur, which had been one of the centres of disaffection, was won after a sharp conflict. Havelock's general order to the troops after the battle is worth recording :

"General Havelock thanks his soldiers for their arduous exertions of yesterday, which produced, in four hours, the strange result of a rebel army driven from a strong position, eleven guns captured, and their whole force scattered to the winds without the loss of a single British soldier. To what is this astounding effect to be attributed ? To the fire of British artillery, exceeding in rapidity and precision all that the brigadier has ever witnessed in his not short career ; to the power of the Enfield rifle in British hands ; to British pluck, that great qual-

ity which has survived the vicissitudes of the hour, and gained intensity from the crisis; and to the blessing of Almighty God on a most righteous cause, the cause of justice, humanity, truth, and good government in India."

On the 16th of July Havelock fought a final battle before Cawnpore. The Nana and his troops were routed and fled.

Next morning Havelock entered the town—too late to save. He had already been apprised of the mournful fact that the captive women and children whom he had hoped to rescue had perished at the hands of their merciless enemies.

The Nana, whether in mad rage, brutal fear, or from sheer lust of blood, had committed a deed which will cause his name to be forever execrated. On the 15th of July the prisoners in his hands, including those from Futtehpur, were massacred. Five male prisoners were dragged forth and shot.

Then a party of Sepoys were ordered to shoot the women and children—two hundred and seven in all—in the prison-house. But even the bloodthirsty Sepoys hesitated at such butchery. They fired, but not a woman or child was hit. But the Nana was not to be balked of his prey by soft-hearted soldiers. Next morning at five o'clock, five men—two Hindoo peasants, two Mohammedan butchers and a Mohammedan soldier—armed with swords or long sharp knives were seen to enter the building. Shrieks upon shrieks were soon heard by those without; but God alone knows what passed in those dreadful shambles. Twice the Mohammedan soldier came out and exchanged his reeking, broken sword for a keener one; then all sounds ceased, the five men left the place at half-past ten at night, the door was closed. When it was opened in the morning, a few were found still living. All were hastily dragged forth—the dead and those not quite dead—and thrown into a well. When Havelock's men entered Cawnpore a rush was made for the building where the massacre took place. The pavement was found to be still slippery with blood; fragments of ladies' and children's dresses lay soaking in it, with bonnets, collars, combs and children's frocks and frills. On the pillars and window-sills were deep sword-cuts, from which, in several places, hung tresses of fair hair. Proceeding in their search, the soldiers found human limbs bristling from a well in the garden. The dead, who had been thrown into it, filled it to the brim. It took Havelock's men four days to bury the victims of the Nana's ferocity. During those four days, those strong men, who were little used to tears, wept bitterly. What wonder that they nursed a mad revenge, which boded evil for the Nana and his followers? Punishment was soon meted out to some.

Some of the prisoners captured from the Nana were taken into the prison where the great massacre had taken place. The blood still lay thick and clotted on the floor. The whole floor was marked off into squares. Then the captured Sepoys were made to clean it all up. They were afterwards tied to the muzzles of the cannons and shot into fragments. When the news of this method of dealing with the Sepoy murderers spread abroad among the native population, it created the utmost consternation. Perhaps no one thing which took place during the mutiny produced a profounder impression on the native mind than this. The touch of Christian blood was a breaking of all caste, and to the Hindoo mind a sending to immediate perdition every one who had done it.

The desolate grounds of 1857 are now converted into beautiful gardens. Shrubbery and flowers combine to form a scene of surpassing loveliness. The eye can see nothing but tropical luxuriance. Winding paths, clumps of rare flowers, and surprising combinations of foliage and colors, make a scene of varied and harmonious loveliness. Through the opening in the shrubbery one can see, in the distance, the now peaceful Ganges, hurrying on towards the sea, its sacred waters still cool from their cradle in the glaciers of the Himalayas.

The most notable object in these delightful gardens is a little octagonal Gothic structure, which crowns a mound of earth. In the centre of the building is the marble figure of an angel, by Marochetti. The arms are folded across the breast, and in each hand a palm is held. This edifice, with its beautiful angel, stands directly over the well into which the bodies of the slaughtered British had been cast, as their only possible grave, by the hands of their cruel enemies. Over the arch are these words: "These are they which came out of great tribulation." Inside, over the entrance, is this inscription: "Erected by the British Government, MDCCCLXIII." Then comes the story of the massacre: "Sacred to the perpetual memory of a great company of Christian people, chiefly women and children, who, near this spot, were cruelly massacred by the followers of Dhoondopunt, of Bithoor, and cast, the dying with the dead, into the well below, on the XVI. day of July, MDCCCLVII." The Prince of Wales visited this memorial on his tour of India in 1876, and was deeply affected on reading the inscription.

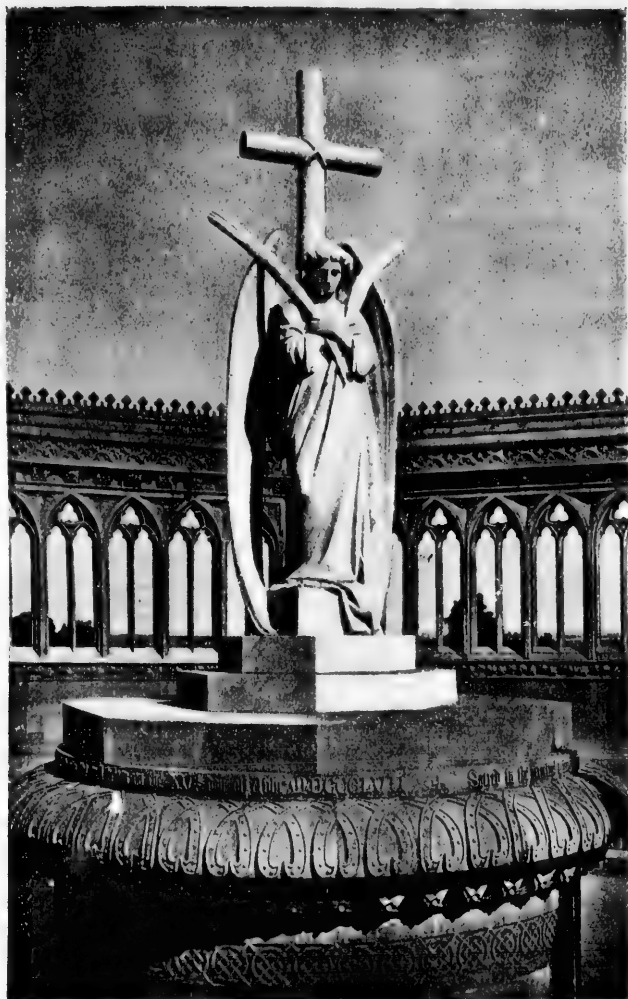
Not far from this memorial structure with its angel is a little cemetery. Flowers and shrubs abound everywhere. Among them are the tombstones to many of those beloved ones who were butchered, or died from disease, during the mutiny.

The Memorial Church is a large and beautiful structure. All around it are

tablets in memory of the dead who fell in the massacre. For tributes to the departed, it is more a tomb than a church. An American, Rev. Dr. Hurst, relates a pathetic incident. "When I entered it, to examine it closely, I saw a group of young English ladies engaged in twining wreaths and making bouquets, to hang about the tombs, or lay on the slabs, as tributes to the dead. I observed one young lady in particular. She was working industriously, with piles of evergreen and flowers about her. I was attracted to her because of the peculiarly serious expression on her face. Who is she? What disturbs her? I soon learn. There was one grave for which she designed her wreaths and flowers. It was that of General Wheeler, whose encampment had been on the very spot where this church stood, and who met his death by Sepoy hands. His tomb is one of the most prominent in the church. This young lady, with sad face and busy fingers, now making Christian wreaths and bouquets for the aged hero's grave, was none other than the hero's own granddaughter."

But a short time before the Nana and his followers had committed another massacre. On the 18th June the 10th infantry mutinied, and set fire to the cantonments at Futtehpur; the 41st, from the opposite shore of the Ganges, joined them: the treasure was seized, and the officers menaced. The river by that date had fallen so low that flight by boat was deemed unsafe, and the Europeans resolved to defend a post which they selected as the most tenable which they could make available. One hundred persons took up this position; thirty were European gentlemen; the rest women and children. They defended this place until the fourth of July, when several military officers of rank having fallen, and most of the rest being wounded, longer defence became impossible. They took to their boats under a terrible fire from their enemies. The boats were pursued with a persistent thirst for blood. Some of the ladies jumped overboard to avoid capture. Some were shot in their boats. One of the boats stranded; those on board leapt into the water. Some were shot down, some drowned, others swam to land, and were captured and mutilated. A few found shelter from compassionate persons while wandering along the shore. One boat only reached Bithoor; Nana Sahib murdered nearly all on board.

The Nana was never captured. No one ever knew what became of him. Utterly routed, he galloped, on a wounded and exhausted horse, through Cawnpore, and made his way to his own palace at Bithoor. He there paused long enough to order the murder of a fugitive Englishwoman who had fallen into the



THE MEMORIAL WELL, CAWNPORE.

hands of his people, and then he took flight in the direction of Nepaul. Never was he again heard of.

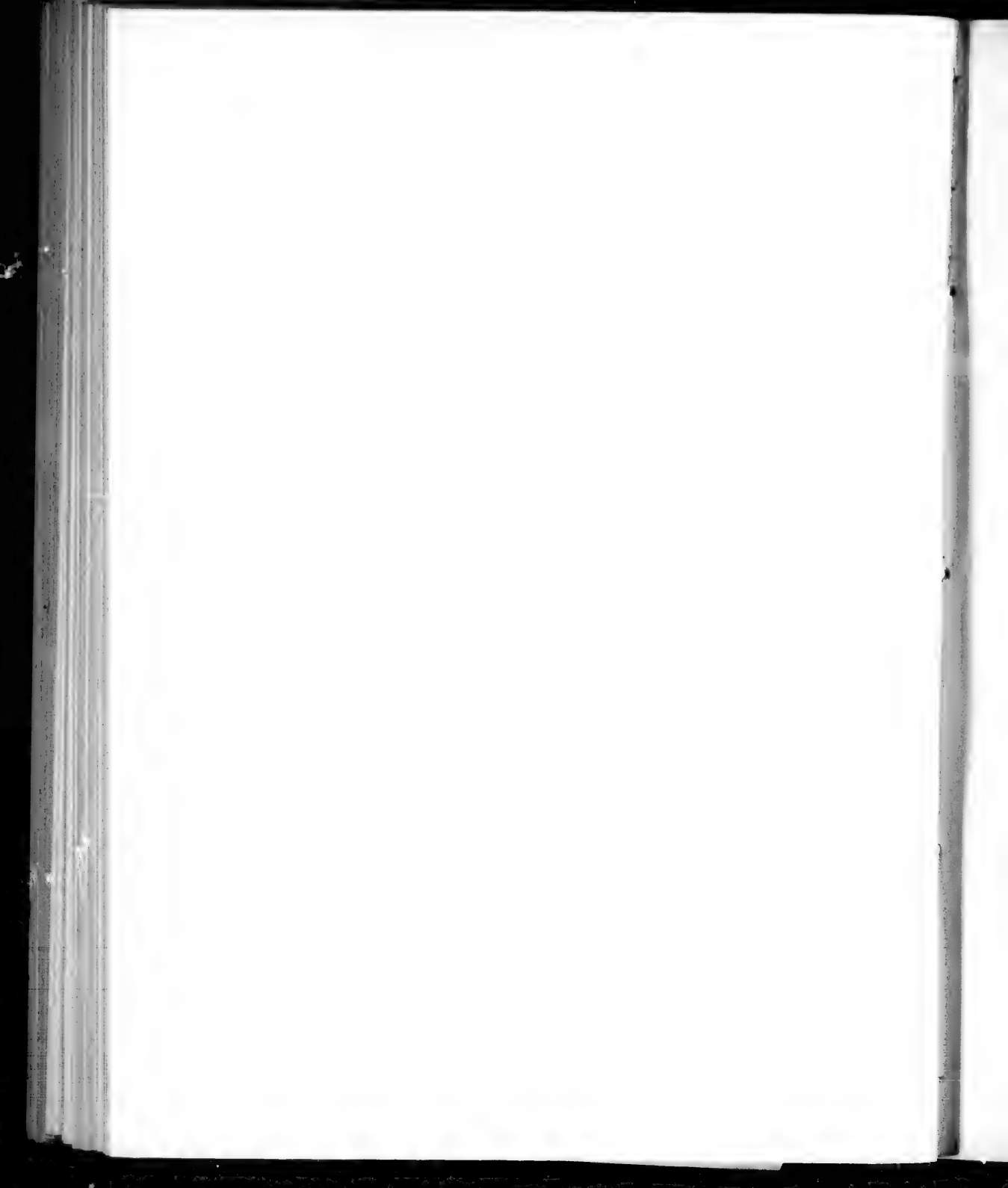
Havelock built an entrenched camp at Cawnpore, in which he left a British garrison. With the rest of his force—only 1,500 men—he pushed on to the relief of Lucknow.

The garrison at Lucknow were in desperate straits. Sir Henry Lawrence had died on the 4th of July. General Inglis succeeded to the command. The Residency in which the British were besieged was commanded from the tops of several mosques and many religious edifices, whence sharpshooters fired down into the enclosure. Lawrence had been anxious to spare holy places as well as private property, and these buildings had not been destroyed. From them proceeded a brisk fire of musketry. This rendered every part of the Residency unsafe. The Sepoys also brought up cannon, and regularly bombarded the Residency.

"I feel," says General Inglis, "that any words of mine would fail to convey any idea of what our fatigue and labors have been—labors in which all ranks and all classes (civilians, officers and soldiers) have all borne an equally noble part. All have together descended into the mines; all have together handled the shovel for the interment of the putrid bullocks, and all, accoutred with musket and bayonet, have relieved each other on sentry, without regard to the distinctions of rank, civil or military; and the enemy, notwithstanding their overwhelming numbers and their incessant fire, could never succeed in gaining one inch of ground within the bounds of the Residency, which was so feebly fortified that had they once obtained a footing in any of the outposts the whole place must inevitably have fallen. During the early part of these vicissitudes we were left without any information of the posture of affairs without. On the twentieth day of the siege, however, a pensioner named Asgad brought in a letter from General Havelock's camp, informing us they were advancing with sufficient force to bear down all opposition, and would be with us in five or six days. A messenger was immediately despatched, requesting that on their arrival on the outskirts of the city two rockets might be sent up, in order that we might take the necessary measures for assisting them to force their way in. The sixth day, however, expired, and they came not; but for many evenings after officers and men watched for the ascension of the expected rockets with hopes such as make the heart sick. We knew not then—nor did we learn till August 29th, thirty-five days



HER MAJESTY QUEEN VICTORIA, AGED 20.



later—that the relieving force, after leaving Cawnpore, fought most nobly to effect our deliverance, but had been obliged to fall back for reinforcements; and this was our last communication before the arrival of help on the 25th of September."

Havelock, with his 1,500 men, left Cawnpore, crossed the Ganges, and headed for Lucknow. But he found himself confronted by hordes of Sepoys. He severely punished the Sepoys in every battle and skirmish. But hemmed in by numbers, he was compelled to own that his force was too inadequate, numerically, for the work it had to do. Finally, he fell back on Cawnpore. There he awaited the reinforcements which were on the way. In September the reinforcements arrived. With them came Major-General Sir James Outram, sometimes called "the Bayard of the Indian Army." He had been appointed as senior officer to the command; but in a spirit of true chivalry he allowed Havelock to conclude the enterprise he had prosecuted with so much energy and to carry the British colors victorious into Lucknow.

"The Major-General,"—so Outram's proclamation to the troops ran—"in gratitude for and admiration of the brilliant deeds in arms achieved by General Havelock and his gallant troops, will cheerfully waive his rank on the occasion; and will accompany the force to Lucknow in his civil capacity as Chief Commissioner of Civils, tendering his military services to General Havelock as a volunteer. On the relief of Lucknow, the Major-General will resume his position at the head of the force."

This generous action was highly praised everywhere. It was spoken of by Lord Canning in an official paper. It was depicted in the centre of a silver shield presented by the inhabitants of Bombay to Sir James Outram, as being the crowning glory of a noble life of service and honor.

The united British forces now pushed forward rapidly, scattering the Sepoys before them. Flushed with hope and strong in endurance they came in sight of Lucknow on the 23rd. Dividing into two columns they delivered a vehement attack—fighting their way into the heart of the city, through streets and lanes swept by incessant discharges of grape-shot and musket-balls—where every house had been converted into a fortalice, and compelling the masses of rebel troops and hostile townfolk to yield before them. At length the relieving force gained the Residency; the British flag continued to float over Lucknow.

Outram now assumed command. He found himself in a difficult position. He

had no means of transport to convey away the women and children, the sick and the wounded. Even if he had the means, his force was not strong enough to convoy them through hosts of enemies. He was therefore compelled to await the arrival of Sir Colin Campbell (afterwards Lord Clyde), who, at the head of a well equipped army, was advancing to his relief. Sir Colin arrived at Cawnpore on the 3rd of November. Six days later he was encamped at the Alumbagh, only three miles from Lucknow. Here he remained a week, communicating with the Residency garrison and concerting measures for their rescue.

The scene in Sir Colin's camp was striking in the extreme. As the little army was drawn up in the midst of an immense plain, it seemed a mere handful. The guns and battalions that had come down from Delhi looked blackened and service-worn; but the horses were in good condition; the harness in perfect repair, the men swarthy, and evidently in good fighting trim. The Ninth Lancers, with their blue uniforms and white turbans twisted round their forage caps, their flagless lances, lean but hardy horses, and gallant bearing, looked the perfection of a cavalry regiment on active service. Wild and bold was the carriage of the Sikh cavalry, riding untamed-looking steeds, clad in loose fawn-colored robes, with long boots, blue or red turbans and sashes, and armed with carbine and sabre. Next to them were the wasted remains of the Eighth and Seventy-fifth, clad entirely in slate-colored cloth. With a wearied air they stood grouped around their standards—war, stripped of its display, in all its nakedness. Then the Second and Fourth Punjaub Infantry, tall of stature, with eagle eyes, overhung by large twisted turbans, clad in short and sand-colored tunics, men swift to march and forward in the fight, ambitious both of glory and of loot. Last stood, many in numbers, in tall and serried ranks, the Ninety-third Highlanders. A waving sea of plumes and tartans they looked, as with loud and rapturous cheers they welcomed their commander. One saw at once that under him they would go anywhere, do anything.

Every inch of Sir Colin's advance was disputed. The struggle was desperate. Finally the intrepid courage of the British overcame the opposition of the infuriated Sepoys. The relieving British force fought its way to the Residency. The whole garrison—men, women and children—passed safely from the Residency to Sir Colin's camp.

Sir Colin Campbell, however, like Sir James Outram, found he was not strong enough to hold the city. He therefore quitted Lucknow—the rebels offering but

a feeble opposition—on the 23rd, leaving behind him the remains of the gallant Havelock, who, on the preceding day, had died of dysentery.

Bad news had reached Sir Colin from Cawnpore. The British force at Cawnpore had been attacked by the troops of Nana Sahib, reinforced by the Gwalior contingent, and was in the utmost peril, together with the bridge of boats by which alone Sir Colin's army could recross the Ganges.

On the 28th of November, the British force in Cawnpore had fought all day desperately, but hopelessly. At night it was compelled to fall back into intrenchments wholly inadequate to give it shelter.

Relief, however, was at hand. Suddenly the clatter of a few horsemen was heard passing over the bridge, and ascending to the Fort at a rapid pace. As they came close under the ramparts, an old man with grey hair was seen riding at their head. One of the soldiers recognized Sir Colin Campbell. The news spread like wildfire. The men crowding upon the parapet sent forth cheer after cheer. The Sepoys, surprised at the commotion, for a few minutes ceased their fire. The old man rode in through the gate. All felt then that the crisis was over.

On the advance of Sir Colin's force the mutinous Sepoys evacuated Cawnpore. Sir Colin then turned his attention to the recapture of Lucknow and the reconquest of Oudh. In a short time, with a force such as India had never before seen under a British general, Sir Colin marched into Oudh and advanced on Lucknow.

"Having marched the last day through miles of barren and uninteresting country," writes an officer of Fusileers, "we came in sight of the camp of the little army of Sir James Outram at Alumbaugh, which Sir Colin had left behind when he marched away with his convoy from Lucknow. There, within those few tents, were the gailant men who had held thousands of Oudh rebels and the Sepoys in check so long; yet who could fancy it was an army encamped before a large city occupied by a numerous enemy?"

Lucknow had been strongly fortified by the rebels. Sir Colin began the siege of Lucknow on the 8th of March, 1858. A vigorous bombardment was maintained by the British, followed by a series of assaults. By the 19th instant the city was fully in possession of the British troops. The rebels were effectually defeated. This story was repeated all over the disaffected districts. In a few months the revolt was at an end.

The suppression of the revolt was followed by the dissolution of the East

India Company. On the 1st of September, 1858, the government of the East India Company ceased. The government of India was transferred to the Crown. The Queen was formally proclaimed Sovereign and the Governor-General her Viceroy.

On the 1st of January, 1877, her Majesty Queen Victoria was proclaimed Empress of India in the old imperial capital at Delhi. The proclamation was made at a Durbar of unparalleled magnificence held in the old Delhi cantonment behind the historic Ridge—the ridge from which in 1857 the British had re-conquered the revolted Mogul capital.

The visit of his Royal Highness the Duke of Edinburgh to India in 1869, and the subsequent visit of His Royal Highness the Prince of Wales in 1870, had prepared the way for a closer association of the princes and people of India with the British Crown. The celebration of an Imperial assemblage at Delhi for the proclamation of the Empress will prove to all future ages an epoch in the annals of British India. It swept aside the memory of the Sepoy revolt of 1857, and associated Delhi with the might and majesty of the sovereign of the British Empire. At the same time it brought all the princes and chiefs of India into personal intercourse in the same camp under the shadow of the British sovereignty. Old feuds were forgotten; new friendships were formed; and for the first time in history the Queen of the British Isles was publicly and formally installed in the presence of the Indian princes and people as the Empress of India.

There were those who scoffed at the assumption of the title as a meaningless expression. It was not meaningless. It was a name, now for the first time pronounced and adopted which correctly expressed and explained the position and authority which the Queen actually held and exercised throughout India.

Those who planned the proclamation were wiser than those who scoffed at it. The Eastern mind seeks for a visible chief on whom to bestow its allegiance, and cannot rest on the idea of power latent in a code or a constitution. "Who is my lord and my master?" not "by what rules and laws am I to be governed?" is the question that is asked. In modern European life the significance of pageants has become faint and feeble, or has vanished altogether except as a historical commemoration. It requires an effort of the imagination to realize that—like the act of homage done in public to the liege lord in the feudal ages of Europe—the regulated splendours and ceremonies of an Indian Durbar still constitute a recognition, a symbol and a picture of existing facts and an indication of the

source and degree of authority, which have a practical effect and influence on the minds of those who witness them. "The event of the Prince's coming," writes Lord Napier of Magdala, in 1876, "is a great one for our prestige in India. It is a want that has been unfulfilled since the time of the best Moguls. The shadow of it rests in the mind of the old Zemindar, who holds with pride the family sunnud given by Akbar."

In India there must be two classes of Governors-General: those who sympathise with the natives in their aspirations for a measure of self-government, and those who favour the Anglo-British sentiment of keeping a firm hand on the natives, and giving the largest measure of power to the central British rule.

Which class is the best?

Sir Fitzjames Stephen, the eminent jurist, always regarded the British rule in India as the greatest achievement of the British race. He held it to be the one thoroughly satisfactory bit of work that the nation was now doing. A letter which strikingly illustrates his enthusiasm was written in prospect of the great Durbar at Delhi when the Queen was proclaimed Empress of India. "I am no poet," he wrote to his brother, "but Delhi made my soul burn within me, and I never heard 'God Save the Queen,' or saw the Union Jack flying in the heart of India without feeling the tears in my eyes, which are not much used to tears."

But Sir Fitzjames was no believer in granting self-government to those unfit to exercise its functions. His whole theory was based upon the view that force, order and justice require a firm basis of "coercion," and that, while we must be strictly just, according to our own views of justice, we must not allow our hands to be tied by hollow fictions about the rights of races really unfit for exercise of the corresponding duties.

This is exactly the same theory that many people have with regard to the South American republics—those lands of oft-recurring revolutions. A gentleman well versed in South American affairs, writes that it would have been a blessing to the world had Great Britain a hundred years ago been able to take hold of the weaker countries of South America. They would have been ruled then with a strong and just hand. "Self-government here," he writes, "is a snare and a delusion; the natives are degraded and utterly unfit to exercise their rights. Force is the only right they recognize; their leaders know it and use the fact to their own advantage."

CHAPTER VII.

Britain and Her Colonies (Continued).

Greater Britain in Australasia—Federation of the Australian Colonies—The New Zealand War—
British Colonies in South Africa—The Boers and the Transvaal—The Kafir and Zulu Wars—
South African Confederation—The British South African Company—The Indian and Colonial
Exhibition—The Imperial Institute.

GREATER BRITAIN in Australasia! Once the land of convict settlements; of shameful immorality; of horrors unspeakable. Now a land of peace and plenty, the home of nearly five millions of intelligent, law-abiding people, who respect the conventionalities of civilized life. Australasia, or Southern Asia, comprises the great island-continent of Australia, the Islands of New Zealand and Tasmania, and a vast number of smaller islands, chiefly in the Southern Hemisphere, between the Pacific and Indian Oceans, with a portion of the Islands of Papua or New Guinea. This great area is estimated to contain over three and a quarter millions of square miles. New South Wales was the first portion to be occupied by the British. In 1783 New South Wales was suggested to the Home Government as a home for those unfortunate American loyalists who had lost their all through the successful revolt of the Americans against the authority of the British sovereign. But the suggestion met with scant attention. British North America offered, it was said, an asylum for the American loyalists. It happened, too, that at the moment the British Government had a new difficulty on its hands through the United States declaring their independence. Formerly the English convicts had been transported to Virginia. This could no longer be done, and in a short time the jails of Britain were crowded with felons. New South Wales was thereupon selected as a penal settlement, the first fleet from England with convicts reaching Port Jackson (Sydney) in January, 1788. For years no one at home gave a thought to the new settlement, unless in vague horror and compassion for the poor wretches who lived there in exile and starvation. But as years went by, the deportation of convicts from the old land gradually ceased. Free emigrants poured into the country. Sheep-raising became its leading industry. The discovery of valuable gold mines in 1851 gave a still

further impetus to the country. The fame of the gold deposits soon spread, and thousands hastened to the scene. When the news reached Britain, crowds of emigrants soon hurried to the new gold fields. The inhabitants of other European countries joined in the rush. Americans were not long in following. Stalwart Californians left their own gold-yielding rocks and placiers to try their fortunes in the Southern Eldorado. Last of all, swarms of Chinese joined in the general scramble for wealth. In 1837 the site of a new capital, in a new district, was laid out, and was called Melbourne, in honor of the Prime Minister at home.



BUCKINGHAM PALACE.

The new colony, of which Melbourne is the capital, was called Victoria, after her Most Gracious Majesty the Queen. As the country became more settled new provinces were formed. Australasia now comprises the following self-governing provinces: New South Wales, Victoria, South Australia, Queensland, Western Australia, New Zealand, Tasmania—each having a Governor appointed by the Crown.

Fiji, British New Guinea, and the scattered islands known under the generic title of Western Pacific, are still under direct Imperial control.

The Australian colonies have proved a veritable gold mine, rich in results for lecturers and stars in operatic and theatrical circles. Throughout the colonies a population of an excellent type has swallowed up, not only the convict element, but also the unstable and thriftless elements shipped out by friends in Britain. There is a cheerfulness among the people, running sometimes into fickleness and frivolity, which at once strikes the observant visitor. In 1885 Mr. Sala, while lecturing in Melbourne, was struck with two very curious circumstances: What was intended to be a glowing eulogium on Mr. Gladstone was received in dead silence, while every allusion made to Lord Beaconsfield was responded to with a thunderous storm of hand-clapping and cheering.

His Royal Highness the Duke of Edinburgh visited Australia in 1868. The visit to Sydney was unhappily marked by a dastardly assault on the Duke. He received a magnificent welcome; triumphal arches of costly and artistic structure, brilliant displays of fireworks, houses aflame with flags were only in harmony with the exuberant loyalty of the people everywhere in proclaiming the landing of the Queen's son upon Australian shores as a memorable event. On March 12th the Prince attended a picnic at Clontarf. On leaving the luncheon table his Royal Highness gave Mr. William Manning a donation towards the erection of a Sailors' Home, and was standing, in conversation on the subject, when a person who had recently arrived in Sydney, named H. F. O'Farrell, walked deliberately to within two yards of him and fired a shot from a revolver, which struck the unsuspecting Prince a little to the right of the spine, and traversed the course of the ribs to the abdomen. The bullet was eventually extracted, and his Royal Highness recovered. O'Farrell was hanged to vindicate the outraged law. "But the dastardly attack upon the Duke of Edinburgh's life," says Sir Henry Parkes, "produced a strange, lurid glare in the political atmosphere, and engendered feelings not simply acrimonious and bitter, but almost deadly in the depth and color of their hatred. Holding the office of Colonial Secretary, and having in my hands the administration of the police, I naturally came in for a little more than my share of the adverse criticisms on the rumors and transactions which followed the attempted murder. The criminal O'Farrell was seriously maltreated by the infuriated crowd at Clontarf, and if he had not been protected by the police and speedily got away from the scene, it is not improbable that he might have been lynched on the spot. All kinds of secret conspiracies were conjured into instant existence. Panic seized the imagina-



THE HON. GEORGE HOUSTON REID,
Premier of New South Wales.

day of a Bill for the better security of the Crown and Government of the United Kingdom, and for the better suppression and punishment of seditious practices and attempts; that this motion was carried by forty-four to two votes; that the Bill was passed through all its stages, sent to the Legislative Council, passed in the same rapid manner by that body, and returned without amendment to the Legislative Assembly before eleven o'clock at night." When the Treason Felony Act reached England it was pronounced repugnant to British law. Meanwhile in the colony it was the occasion for much mutual abuse, and Orange and Roman Catholic Guilds increased and multiplied with an amazing rapidity.

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tions of sensible and sober-minded men. Even the Premier (the late Chief Justice, Sir James Martin), who was by no means a timid man, went about armed, and had his private residence guarded at night by armed men. Nothing is easier than to smile at all this from a comfortable distance of time or space. But the mingled feelings of indignation, uneasiness and alarm were all but universal, and were contagious to a high degree, and spread widely amongst those who woke up afterwards to affectedly condemn the proceedings. In proof of this state of excited feeling I need only cite the facts that on March 18th Mr. Martin moved in the Legislative Assembly: 'That the Standing Orders be suspended with a view to the passing through all its stages in one



THE HON. SIR GEORGE TURNER,
K.C.M.G.
Premier of Victoria.

The Australian colonies have given practical proof of their loyalty to the Empire. The events which culminated in the death of General Gordon and the capture of Khartoum in 1885 were watched with the keenest interest by the people of the Australian colonies. The widespread sympathy which was felt for the mother country, as the troubles multiplied and the prospect became more threatening, found expression in the offer of Mr. William Bede Dalley, the Attorney-General and acting Premier of New South Wales, to send within a month, to the aid of the British arms in the Soudan, a fully-equipped force, eight hundred strong. Although many in the colony opposed the idea, Mr. Dalley's action won, generally, popular approval. The British Government accepted what it called the "splendid offer," and for a time the voices of malcontents were drowned in the busy hum of preparation for the despatch of the contingent. Two large steamers were chartered as transports, and all arrangements were made with a lavish profusion, which clearly indicated the excitement which had taken possession of the people. Private citizens vied with one another in making presents of stores and other requisites. A patriotic fund was started for the relief of the widows and orphans of those who might fall; nearly \$250,000 was subscribed. Men from all parts of the colony hastened to volunteer their services, and had it been desired, a force twice or three times as large could easily have been enrolled. Within three weeks of the acceptance of Mr. Dalley's offer all arrangements had been completed, and on the 3rd of March, 1885, amidst the greatest enthusiasm, the soldiers embarked before a crowd of close upon a quarter of a million people. The significance of this event was unquestionably very great. The other colonies would gladly have joined New South Wales in its enterprise. At the same time it showed the world that Great Britain had a latent power which had hitherto never been suspected or admitted. The whole business—offer, acceptance, and despatch of the soldiers—was so hurried and carried through on such a remarkable wave of popular emotion that the calmer heads in the community prophesied a violent reaction. It so happened that the New South Wales contingent had but little opportunity of real service. Its achievements and casualties were alike insignificant. Nevertheless, the reception of the troops on their return was almost as great as the demonstration at their departure. The prodigality displayed in equipping the force had provided scoffers with a text, whilst the huge patriotic fund had but few claimants upon it and remained a monument of what appeared to many in more sober



THE HON. SIR HUGH MUIR NELSON,
K.C.M.G.,
Premier of Queensland.

Company's own representations, led only to a trifling violation of the law on the part of the Macries. The dispute eventually paralyzed the affairs of the Company, and created a profound sensation throughout the whole of New Zealand.

The natives gathered to resist the demands of the Company. The Company sent a force to compel the submission of the natives. A conflict followed, in which the natives were victorious. Two or three of the Company's force, by concealing themselves in the long fern, were the only survivors who returned to narrate the dismal story of this disaster.

This victory over the colonists had a

moments unnecessary liberality. But none the less the majority of the colonists were glad that they had done what they had; indeed, were Britain on a future occasion to appear in imminent peril, it is quite certain that Australians would again be found ready to aid her with their fortunes and their lives.

In its early days New Zealand was blessed, or cursed, with one of those great Companies which has brought so much trouble to the Home Government. In 1832 the New Zealand Company was established. Not long after some dispute arose between the natives and the Company about land, which, according to the



THE HON. CHARLES CAMERON
KINGSTON, Q.C.,
Premier of South Australia.

most prejudicial effect on the minds of the natives. Since the country had become a British colony peace had prevailed, and an acknowledged supremacy in authority, as well as superiority in race, had been maintained on our part. A quarrel had now unfortunately arisen, and a fight had ensued in which the British had been defeated. We had therefore not only lost our prestige as a superior race, but the natives had lost faith in our magnanimity, and a general want of confidence prevailed which fell little short of a panic.

It was afterwards clearly demonstrated that the Company were in the wrong. Three successive Governors could not take the same view as the Company of the circumstances which led to this disaster. Sir George Grey, although he did not say so in so many words, evidently thought the Company was in the wrong. He bought the land in dispute from the natives, and the amount paid there was actually charged against the Company subsequently by the Government, in the settlement of accounts.

Thus it happened that in New Zealand the Maori natives for many years proved a veritable thorn in the flesh to the white settlers. The white settlers wanted the Maoris' land; the natives persistently refused to be dispossessed of their land. This was obstinacy on the part of the natives; something must be done. Mild means were first tried; these failed. Sterner measures were resorted to. From 1854 to 1871 there were wars and rumors of wars between the natives and the Government. In 1863 and 1864 a force of 20,000 Imperial and Colonial troops invaded the Maori district, and effectually dispersed the natives after many severe and bloody skirmishes. But even then they were not subdued. Since 1871, however, there have been no open disturbances. Great efforts were made to conciliate the leading native chiefs. Pardons were freely offered to the natives by the Colonial authorities. Those were trying days for Colonial Governors and their families. Occasionally the Government House party would have to entertain one or more native chiefs, now dressed in European costume, who were formerly noted for the bloody orgies in which they indulged after a victory over some native chief and his followers.

In their wars with the Imperial and Colonial troops, however, the Maoris generally proved themselves to be brave and generous foes. They were remarkable fighters, and were, moreover, led by men with wonderful strategical capacity and military instinct.

A Maori chief, known as Johnny Heke, was a recognized leader in many a



THE HON. SIR E. N. C. BRADDON,
K.C.M.G.,

Premier of Tasmania.

town, in order to observe what was going on. Heke prepared his plans accordingly. He ordered some fifteen of his stout and daring native warriors to hide near the blockhouse. He planted this party in ambush during the night. On the following morning, March 11th, 1845, he advanced in force towards the town, and fired a few volleys, in order to attract the attention of the military in the blockhouse. The Ensign, on hearing the report of musketry, hastily left his post with his men, and proceeded to the brow of the hill, leaving the blockhouse and flag unprotected. The Maories, in ambush, who were watching all his proceedings,

disturbance. Again and again he cut down the flagstaff at the Bay of Islands. The Government, determined to maintain its prestige, built a blockhouse on the top of the hill on which the flagstaff was erected. It was garrisoned with a detachment consisting of one sergeant and twenty men of the Ninety-Sixth Regiment, under the command of Ensign Campbell, with orders to hold the place and protect the flag at all hazards.

Johnny Heke, however, by means of a cunningly contrived strategy, once again cut down the flagstaff.

He had observed that Ensign Campbell and his men, when they saw the Maories advancing towards the town on the shore below, left the blockhouse and proceeded to the brow of the hill overlooking the



THE HON. SIR JOHN FORREST, K.C.M.G.,

Premier of Western Australia.

and only waiting for this opportunity, leaped from their cover in the fern, and bounding like deer towards the blockhouse, were immediately in possession of it, including all the arms and munitions of war.

The victorious natives followed up this successful strategy by an attack on the town of Russell, which was taken and sacked. The inhabitants and military found an asylum on board a ship of war, which lay in the harbor, and which at once sailed for Auckland. The United States ship of war *St. Louis*, Captain McKevor, likewise rendered great assistance to many of the inhabitants. He received 150 of them on board his vessel.

In New Zealand, as in South Africa, in America, in Egypt, the policy of mismanagement caused the Home Government much trouble and treasure.

The condition of affairs under Government control, which led to the Maori wars, was without doubt the result of misgovernment. The Government policy, instead of being distinguished for its magnanimity towards an inferior race, copied too freely the arbitrary and high-handed conduct of the Company. This alienated and irritated the natives. The disgraceful system of land-jobbing, practised both by Government and the Company, had, moreover, created a strong impression on the minds of the chiefs that they were treated unjustly and without sufficient consideration. When the Government resorted to arms in order to overawe and coerce them into submission, the defeats and disasters it met with, north and south, encouraged the natives to rise in rebellion, not so much against the sovereignty of the Queen as against the unjust measures of the Company and the Government in respect to their lands.

Here is an excellent illustration of how the Home Government, quite unintentionally perhaps, did its best to misgovern and irritate the natives of New Zealand, and how sharply it was rebuked by Bishop Selwyn and his Church of England missionaries. In 1846 Earl Grey, who was Colonial Secretary in Lord John Russell's Ministry, introduced a bill into the Imperial Parliament to give New Zealand with a constitutional and representative government. Some of its provisions were particularly objectionable. One provision was that no person should be capable of exercising the elective franchise who could not read and write the English language. There was not a native who could do this, although most of them could read and write their own language fluently.

Another clause provided that all unoccupied lands should be forfeited to the Crown. There was great dissatisfaction in New Zealand at these clauses.

Bishop Selwyn forwarded the following spirited protest to Sir George Grey, the Governor of New Zealand :

" May it please Your Excellency,—I, George Augustus, by Divine permission, Bishop of New Zealand, on my own behalf, and on behalf of the clergymen of this diocese, employed by Captain Hobson to interpret and explain the Treaty of Waitangi to the native chiefs of New Zealand, do hereby record my deliberate and formal protest against the principles expressed in a letter of instructions addressed by the Right Hon. the Earl Grey to your Excellency, bearing date Downing Street, December 23, 1846, to the effect that 'The savage inhabitants of New Zealand have no right of property in land which they do not occupy, and which has remained unsubdued to the purposes of man.'

' Against this doctrine I feel myself called upon to protest at the head of the missionary body, by whose influence and representations the native chiefs were induced to sign the Treaty of Waitangi, not one of whom would have consented to act as an agent of the British Government if the assurances given to them by Captain Hobson had not been directly contrary to the principles now avowed by the Right Hon. the Earl Grey. It is my duty also to inform your Excellency, that I am resolved, God being my helper, to use all legal and constitutional measures befitting my station, to inform the natives of New Zealand of their rights and privileges as British subjects, and to assist them in asserting and maintaining them, whether by petition to the Imperial Parliament, or other loyal or peaceful methods, but that in so doing I shall not forget the respect which I owe to your Excellency, nor do anything which can be considered likely to add to the difficulties of the colony.

"I have further to request that this communication may be forwarded to the Right Hon. the Earl Grey, Secretary of State for the Colonies, with whom I am privileged to communicate through your Excellency. I have, &c.

" G. A. NEW ZEALAND."

Sir George Grey also vigorously protested against the attempt to intentionally disfranchise, oppress, and reduce the natives to a condition of serfdom, after they had ceded the sovereignty of their country to the Queen upon the express stipulation that they were to be entitled to all the rights of British subjects. In the end Earl Grey suspended the introduction of the Charter.

But the old fighting days are now over, it is hoped, forever. White-winged peace hovers over the two races, who are intermingling and living harmoniously

side by side. The Maories are, moreover, meeting the fate of all savage people who come in contact with a higher civilization, and are rapidly vanishing from the land of their fathers. This is certainly different to the state of affairs in what may be called Black America. The white people of the United States would be only too glad to see the blacks rapidly vanishing from the land of their adoption. But the blacks are not vanishing. Instead of doing so, they are increasing at a rate which is likely to cause serious trouble to the Government of the United States before many years.

The social life of a new colony, such as New Zealand in its early days, presented many amusing contrasts. On the occasion of a party at Government House, in the winter season, it frequently happened that the guests would get as far as the gate, but to get through the mud farther was impossible without rendering them unpresentable at an evening party. The services of some Maories would then be secured; and the guests would be carried over the slough of mud to the verandah of Government House on the backs of the Maories. It was well that in those days the colonists were mostly young and all high in spirits, and that such words as trouble and difficulty were practically not to be found in their vocabulary.

Mr. George Higinbotham, late Chief Justice of Victoria, and a leading Australian politician, was opposed to the idea of Imperial Federation, fancying that it would lead back to rule by Downing Street and "government by despatches." He had fought too much and too bravely against this to see any advantage in schemes of closer connection. And yet every scheme of Imperial or Britannic Confederation implies complete self-government of each part as to its own affairs. "The future can take care of itself," was Higinbotham's answer, when pressed as to what would be the state of affairs when the colonies had a population equal or nearly equal to that of Great Britain. Australian Federation he supported, but not so warmly as many. He saw no necessity for hurry in the matter of Federation, and would consent to any postponement rather than see Responsible Government in the British sense weakened in the least by its adoption. On this point he was as Conservative as the most true-blue Constitutionalist could desire.

The question of the Federation of the Australian Colonies has been discussed for many years. Among the proposals made when the scheme for granting Responsible Government to Australia was originally discussed, about the year 1852, was one for the establishment of a General Assembly to make laws in rela-

tion to international questions. The proposition, however, sank out of sight for some time, until, in various ways, especially in regard to postal matter and defence, the benefits of united action became more apparent. Some years ago, as the result of an Intercolonial Conference, the matter came before the Imperial Parliament, and a measure was passed permitting the formation of a Federal Council, to which any colony could send delegates. The first meeting of the Federal Council was held at Hobart, in January, 1886. Victoria, Queensland, Tasmania, Western Australia and Fiji were represented. South Australia sent representatives to a subsequent meeting. The Federal Council has met five times in all and discussed matters of intercolonial interest; but as it is purely a deliberate body, without authority to legislate, it has failed to satisfy the advocates of Federation as an active political principle. In February, 1890, a more important Conference, consisting of representatives of each of the seven colonies of Australia, was held in Melbourne. An address to the Queen was adopted, containing resolutions affirming the desirableness of union under the Crown of the Australian Colonies. It was also recommended that steps should be taken towards the appointment of delegates from each of the colonies to a National Australian Convention, empowered to consider and report upon an adequate scheme for a Federal constitution. On March 2nd, 1891, the National Australian Convention met at Sydney, New South Wales, and was attended by forty-five representatives—seven from each colony, except New Zealand, which only sent three. Sir Henry Parkes was unanimously elected President of the Convention, and Sir Samuel Griffiths, Vice-President. A series of resolutions, moved by Sir Henry Parkes, occupied the attention of the Convention. These resolutions set forth the principles upon which Federal Government should be established, and went on to approve of a Federal Constitution, with a Federal Parliament, to consist of a Senate and a House of Representatives, a Federal Judiciary and a Federal Executive. These resolutions were discussed at great length, and eventually were adopted. The public were admitted to the debates, and an official record of the proceedings was published. A draft Bill, to constitute the "Commonwealth of Australia," was adopted by the Convention, and it was agreed that the Bill should be presented to each of the Australian Parliaments for approval and adoption. This Bill was introduced into the Parliaments of most of the colonies of the group, and in Victoria it passed the Lower House with some amendments. In January, 1895, a conference of the Premiers of the five Australian colonies

was opened at Hobart, by Viscount Gormanston, Governor of Tasmania. A series of resolutions was adopted urging the importance of Federation and requiring that a convention of representatives, chosen directly by the electors of each colony, should draft a Constitution to be submitted to the electors directly, and that if such a Constitution should be accepted, that the necessary steps be taken to secure its adoption.

There are two leading groups of British Colonies in Africa: the West African colonies situated upon the tropical, fever-stricken coast to the north of the Equator; and the South African colonies which occupy the southern extremity of the continent, and generally healthy and well adapted for European settlements. Besides these colonies there are other large portions of the continent now under British protection.

The story of the occupation of British Africa is replete with thrilling adventures; of contests with the native tribes; of diplomatic skirmishes with Germany and other European powers.

The Cape Colony is first in wealth and importance of British possessions in Africa.

On the 19th January, 1806, after a century and a half of Dutch rule, the Cape of Good Hope, or the Cape Colony, became a British colony. The Dutch and British settlers lived in peace together for years. Then differences gradually arose. The Dutch settlers upheld slavery. The British desired to emancipate the slaves. In 1834 a law was passed emancipating all slaves throughout the colony. Large numbers of the Dutch, or Boers as they are called, migrated and founded a colony at Natal. In 1843 Natal became part of the British dominions in Africa. The Boers again migrated or "trekked," to use a South African term, and founded the Orange Free State. Some of the more restless spirits among the Boers "trekked" once again into the Transvaal. By 1877 there were the three British colonies of Cape Town, Natal and Griqualand, with two independent Dutch Republics—the Orange Free State and the Transvaal. Lord Carnarvon, Colonial Secretary of State, thought to found a South African Confederation, somewhat on the plan of the Canadian Confederation. Sir Bartle Frere was sent out to South Africa as High Commissioner to effect the Confederation. Frere was a man of great ability—sincere and upright. But the colonies were not yet ready for Confederation. Difficulties confronted Frere at every step. He found three distinct types of Europeans in the country—the Dutch Boers, the Britishers, and the Germans.

The Dutchman, or Boer, recognizes South Africa as his home; he wants to live and let live, not make money as fast as he can and then pack up for home. He is a good citizen if let alone. Many thousands of them are loyal British subjects. The Britisher, on the other hand, is hoping every day to be off home again.



AN INCIDENT IN THE ZULU WAR.

He is after diamonds or gold, or else he is a trader. He may buy a farm, if he thinks he can sell it at a bargain to-morrow; if he is an old settler who has had a free grant he wisely sticks to it; but if he can't get it free he leaves the land severely alone, and tries shopkeeping.

The German is a trader, if a Jew; but on the eastern border he is a soldier-settler of the old German legion, or descended from one. As settlers they are worth more than half-a-dozen of any other white men. They are the most law-abiding people, though if called out for service they soon show that they have lost none of their military instincts.

Besides the people of European blood, there are the Kafirs, the Zulus, and other native tribes. Frere found that the natives were utterly incapable of self-government. There was constant fighting between the various tribes, or between the natives and the whites. The Kafir and the Zulu wars are matters of history. There is nothing more piteous to see than the result of a Kafir outbreak. Farms in the early days were large, say from one thousand to four thousand acres. They were occupied by pioneer farmers, discharged soldiers of the old German Legion, and other military settlers, who with their families lived far apart. It is only by their known good marksmanship, and the respect inspired by a white face, that the whites hold their own among hundreds of black men. A Kafir war means ruin to the settler. Here is an instance: On January 4th, 1878, a large body of Kafirs swept a settler's farm completely; they burned his house and outbuildings, and carried off twelve thousand sheep, with many cattle and horses. From affluence he was reduced in an hour to destitution. He had grown gray with long toil, and was too old to begin life fresh. Even the Aborigines Protection Society would not be surprised to hear that the motto of such men was, "Slay, and spare not." The natives also suffered severely at the hands of freebooters and lawless whites. It was to protect the natives, and secure safety for the whites, that Frere was so persistent in reiterating the demands of his predecessors, that Great Britain should take the native districts under its protection.

The British troops sent against the natives labored under a serious disadvantage. The official instructions for outpost duty were almost word for word those authorized for the Peninsular war. They may be very excellent against civilized troops, but ridiculous against the savage who can wriggle like a snake almost noiselessly through the grass, and whose delight is to display a stained assegai to his own dusky maiden to show he has washed his spear in some sentry's blood. The troops indeed soon found that the Kafir's ways were like those of the Red Indians. Loyal natives had eventually to be employed, while the soldiers had to alter their tactics entirely.

The Kafirs generally were splendid men physically. They were brave, too. One day in a skirmish a young Kafir, whose arm-ring showed him to be a chief, was shot and his men began to retreat, except one tall gray-headed old fellow, who threw all his assegais, then his knobkerrie, and finally heavy stones and dirt at the white men. Their officer ordered them not to shoot him, and an interpreter told him that if he would surrender he would not be hurt. His reply was worthy of any race: "This morning I left the great place with my young chief; you have killed him. I, a councillor, cannot return to his father without him; I will follow him," and he continued advancing and throwing, till some man, who got a crack on the head, put up his rifle and shot him.

The Kafir outbreak of 1877 was successfully quelled, but it roused the natives throughout South Africa. They thought the time had come to exterminate the white men. The Zulus, especially, became very insolent; Cetywayo, their chief, was determined that his warriors should wash their spears in the blood of the white man. The Transvaal Boers, harsh and arbitrary in their treatment of natives, had involved themselves in war with a native potentate, and had also got into disputes with Cetywayo. Many years before it was pointed out to the Home authorities that the undisputed authority of a single paramount civilized power, capable of enforcing fair treatment of the natives, was essential to peace and tranquillity, and to the progress and civilization of the country. In 1858 a proposal for the union was made, but the then Colonial Secretary decided against it, and a golden opportunity was lost. The Boers and the lawless element ever on the confines of white settlements continued to cruelly harass and maltreat the native tribes.

The British were endeavoring to keep on friendly terms with both the Transvaal Boers and with Cetywayo. The Transvaal Boers were clamoring for their "rights," as they put it; while the Zulus had long looked on the British as friends. At this critical moment the Transvaal was declared annexed to the British Crown. Complications ensued which resulted in the Zulu war of 1879. Alarmed at the threatening attitude of the Zulus, who were reported to have thirty or forty thousand warriors ready for the warpath, Frere wrote to the Colonial Office urging that reinforcements be sent promptly. But the Home authorities, seven thousand miles from the scene, could not see the necessity for reinforcements, and the request was refused. Then followed the disaster at Isandhlwana, on January 22nd, 1879. Here a force of British regulars and

volunteers was surrounded by some fifteen thousand Zulus and cut to pieces, six men only escaping. Fifty-two officers and 806 non-commissioned officers and men, with about 300 native troops were killed. The Zulus captured two 7-pounders, 800 rifles and 400,000 cartridges. This news reached England on February 11th. Immediately there was a tremendous bustle in Pall Mall. Three months before a request for a single regiment of cavalry had been curtly refused. Now two regiments of cavalry, four batteries of artillery, six infantry battalions—some ten thousand men in all—were hurriedly despatched to Natal. One million dollars expended when Frere first asked for reinforcements might have sufficed to have prevented war and to have saved the Transvaal. Eventually the war cost nearly twenty-five millions of dollars, and the Transvaal was lost to Great Britain.

Later on Sir Garnet Wolseley was sent out to assume supreme command. He arrived at Cape Town on June 28th, and went on at once to Natal. But before he could reach the seat of war, the decisive battle of Ulundi had been fought and won by Lord Chelmsford, on July 4th. The fighting was then done. The Zulus acknowledged themselves beaten. The colonists were dismissed to their homes. All that remained to be done was to make Cetywayo prisoner, then to arrange a settlement of Zululand and the government of the Transvaal. Cetywayo successfully eluded capture for a long time. Not one of his subjects could be, for many weeks, induced by bribes or threats to betray him. At last one man yielded to temptation, and pointed out a little kraal on the edge of a thick forest, where, weary and footsore, he was resting. The British officer in command of the party in pursuit threatened to burn down the hut, when the king came forth, and, standing before him, said: "You would not have taken me, but I never thought troops could come down the mountain through the forest." A chief, seven men, a boy, five women, and a girl were captured with Cetywayo.

The disaster at Isandhlwana was clearly the result of not attending to orders. Paul Kruger and others had told the British officers that the British troops would meet with disaster if they did not form a "laager" or armed camp every time a halt was made. At Isandhlwana the camp was only partially kept. The result was the extermination of the force. The tactics of the Zulus spread consternation among the British. Frere urged that the nearest British column, camped at Rorke's Drift, and which had gallantly defended itself against an attack from the

Zulus a few days before, should advance and take up a position near Isandhlwana, so that at least the dead should be buried. But he urged in vain, and for four months their bones lay whitening in the sun.

The Zulus were brave men, with a high sense of honor. Major General Molyneux thought they were foemen worthy of our steel. He says that as the langer was being formed one evening some Zulu messengers arrived. They were kept a day, well fed, and then sent off to Ulundi under an escort of a sergeant and six men of the 17th Lancers, to protect them from the Swazis, whom they held in much greater hatred than us. It was agreed that when they considered themselves in safety they should send the escort back. The sergeant afterward reported that when in a place between two batches of bush the messenger gave the arranged signal. A Zulu regiment rose suddenly and would have surrounded the escort, whereupon the messengers called out, the regiment opened, and let the Lancers return the way they had come.

It was in this war that the young Prince Louis Napoleon was killed, while acting as commander of a reconnoitering party of six troopers and a friendly Zulu. They were surprised by forty Zulus. The Prince was killed; Lieut. Carey and four troopers escaped. Carey was afterwards tried and found guilty of misbehavior before the enemy. It was said he might have saved the Prince had he not become panic-stricken. He was sent home, but was subsequently permitted to rejoin his regiment. The Prince's body when found had seventeen wounds, all of them in the front. The marks on the ground and on the spurs that were found near his body indicated a desperate resistance. The spot where he fell in Zululand is marked by a cross bearing the following inscription:



"This cross is erected by Queen Victoria in affectionate remembrance of Napoleon Eugene Louis Jean Joseph, Prince Imperial, to mark the spot where, while assisting in a reconnaissance with the British troops on the 1st of June, 1879, he was attacked by a party of Zulus, and fell with his face to the foe."

Major-General Molyneux relates a good story about Bishop Colenso. Lord Chelmsford, who commanded at Ulundi was proceeding to Maritzburg. Molyneux was travelling ahead, and as he started for the last thirty-two miles lap

he found one of his fellow-travellers was Bishop Colenso. "Now the Bishop had all along held the view that the British and not the Zulus had been the wrongdoers from the first, and not being one whit afraid of his opinions, he had lost no opportunity of airing them in the newspapers. This view had not been generally popular in Natal, and at that particular time his lordship was not very much honored in his own country. When we were three miles from Maritzburg a strong party of men rushed at us, took the horses out of the omnibus, cheered like maniacs, and began to drag us towards the town. The Bishop knew the General was following later, saw at once the mistake, and could not bear the notion of being mixed up in any way with a demonstration in favor of the victor of Ulundi. 'I am not the General,' he shouted. We were bowling along at a fine rate; the horses had been turned adrift, and had galloped off down the road; if the men found out their mistake we should be left stranded on the veldt. I tried, therefore, to pacify his lordship, but in vain; he would not listen to reason as a mathematician should. 'I am the Bishop; I am not the General,' he yelled again. 'By jingo, it *is* the old bloke of a Bishop,' said one of the crowd; and at once, as I had foreseen, we were left ignominiously to cool our heels on the road. A quarter of an hour later the post-cart with the General and his party galloped past."

Soon after the disaster at Isandhlwana the Transvaal Boers again set up their claim to independence. The disaffected Boers continued the agitation, terrorizing those in the territory who were content to remain under British rule. In March, 1879, Frere visited the Transvaal. He told the Boers that his instructions were to say that the British Government would not give up the Transvaal, but that they might look to having complete freedom and ultimately local self-government under the British Crown, such as was enjoyed by the Cape Colony. Three Secretaries of State, three High Commissioners, and two Houses of Commons had said that the Transvaal should not be given back. Yet the Transvaal was given back.

Later in the year, Frere was replaced in the Transvaal by Sir Garnet Wolseley. Sir Garnet made speeches in every place he visited, declaring the Act of Annexation to be irrevocable. He afterwards published a proclamation to that effect. At Standerton, which is on the Vaal River, he told the people that the Vaal would flow backward before the British would be withdrawn from the Transvaal territory. But the Boers would not be satisfied. Knowing that the Mr.

Gladstone, who, in his Mid-Lothian speeches, had denounced their annexation as unjust, was the Queen's Prime Minister, they naturally concluded he would give them back their independence, not understanding that party speeches made before a general election are not always intended to be taken literally. As time passed, and they found that the new Ministry took no steps towards giving them



LORD WOLSELEY.

their independence, the agitation broke out afresh. Finally they openly rebelled. Then came the disastrous defeat of the British forces by the Boers at Majuba Hill in 1881.

Instead of putting forth all its resources and stamping out the rebellion, the British Government actually began to treat with rebels in arms. It thus

gradually became known throughout the Transvaal that the plighted word of the British Crown over and over again pledged to retain the Transvaal, on the faith of which hundreds of Europeans had settled in the country and staked their all, and on which seven hundred thousand natives relied for protection, was to be deliberately repudiated and broken.

That plighted word was broken. The Transvaal State was recognized, subject to suzerainty of the Queen. The Boers viewed this pusillanimous conduct on the part of the British Government with the contempt it deserved. At a banquet held shortly after at Pretoria, at which the British representative was present, the Queen's health was drunk with ironical cheers last of all the political toasts.

If the integrity of the British Empire is to be maintained some British statesmen will have to remember the words of Macaulay :

"That honesty is the best policy is a maxim which we firmly believe to be generally correct, even with respect to the temporal interests of individuals ; but with respect to societies the rule is subject to still fewer exceptions, and for this reason, that the life of societies is longer than the life of individuals. It is possible to mention those who have owed great worldly prosperity to breaches of private faith ; but we doubt whether it be possible to mention a state which has on the whole been a gainer by a breach of public faith ; the entire history of British India is an illustration of the great truth that it is not prudent to oppose perfidy to perfidy, and the most efficient weapon with which men can encounter falsehood is truth. During a long course of years the English rulers in India, surrounded by allies and enemies whom no engagement could bind, have generally acted with sincerity and uprightness, and the event has proved that sincerity and uprightness are wisdom. English valour and English intelligence have done less to extend and to preserve our Oriental Empire than English veracity. All that we could have gained by imitating the doubtings, the evasions, the perjuries which have been employed against us is as nothing when compared with what we have gained by being the one power in India on whose word reliance could be placed. No oath which superstition can devise, no hostage however precious inspires a hundredth part of the confidence which is produced by the 'yea, yea,' and 'nay, nay' of a British envoy."

Moreover, if the British Government thought that its breach of faith with the whites and natives in the Transvaal would end its troubles, it soon found it was

wofully mistaken. The Boers were utterly unable to protect the natives living on their frontiers.

After the defeat of the Zulus, Cetewayo was sent away to England. Contrary to the petitions of the conquered Zulus themselves, contrary to the earnest advice of many leading colonists, Sir Garnet Wolseley, instead of placing the Zulu country under British protection, parcelled out the Zulu country among thirteen petty chiefs. Sir Garnet Wolseley has ever proved himself a genius in military campaigns. He was not so successful as an administrator.

In a little while Cetewayo was sent back to his country. But that did not restore Zululand to Cetewayo. It only made confusion worse confounded. His sudden death did not improve matters. There were constant bloody fights between the petty chiefs. In the end the domains of these petty chiefs proved so many tempting baits for the filibustering Boers after the death of Cetewayo. Zululand was annexed as a British possession.



CECIL RHODES.

feat of the British troops at Majuba Hill. The natives of Africa, like those of India, require a strong hand to rule them. After their defeat the Zulus should have been placed under British protection instead of leaving them to become the prey of the Boers or to fight among themselves. Eventually, in 1887, what

This of itself furnishes an excellent illustration of the short-sighted policy of 1879.

Lord Randolph Churchill visited the Transvaal in 1891. He returned home with a very poor opinion of the Boers, as a governing people. He regretted that the Transvaal had ever ceased to be a British possession.

"Had Johannesburg, with its present population, its present possessions, and its present prospects, existed at the time of the Transvaal War, it never would have been suffered to pass away from the dominion of the British Government.

Viewing the Transvaal as it is, and calculating what it might be if its possessors and rulers were English, one cannot but lament that so splendid a territory should have ceased to be British."

In the Transvaal no native may travel from one place to another unless he is provided with a pass. In the towns no native may be out at night, unless he is similarly protected. Neither can any native in the Transvaal acquire a title to land. On the other hand, throughout the Transvaal the native enjoys the valuable privilege of being able to purchase and consume in any quantity the most poisonous alcoholic compounds.

Lord Randolph rejoiced, after all that he saw in the Transvaal, that the country and the people of the Matabele and the Mashona had been rescued in the nick of time, owing to the genius of Mr. Rhodes and the tardy vigor of the British Government, from the withering grasp of the Boer.

In 1880 Frere opened negotiations for the construction of a railway from the Transvaal, through Portuguese territory, to Delagoa Bay. The necessary preliminaries for this were ably accomplished by his old friend, Sir Robert Morier, then Minister at Lisbon, who having acquired a special knowledge of and interest in this coast in connection with the suppression of the slave-trade, had by the most strenuous efforts succeeded in overcoming Portuguese prejudice and securing the consent of the Portuguese Government to a treaty which promised great advantage to the South African Colonies, and especially to the Transvaal—as the Boers well knew—in giving direct communication with the nearest seaport, and opening the port on equal terms to British and Portuguese ships. But the matter was delayed in Britain till the Portuguese Ministry favorable to the treaty had left office, and the opportunity was lost. Great Britain, Germany and Portugal have since compromised their disputes as to their various spheres of influence in Africa.

In 1882, Rev. John Mackenzie, a South African missionary, visited England to arouse interest in South African affairs, especially as regarded Bechuanaland. He visited Mr. A., a large manufacturer and local magnate. Mr. A. thought it a great mistake that Sir Bartle Frere had not been recalled at once. "In fact," he said, "we are of opinion that Frere should have been tried and hanged." Mr. Mackenzie replied by giving a sketch of the work which Sir Bartle Frere had had before him, its fatal element of haste, but its calamitous failures in no way chargeable to him. "In short," concluded Mr. Mackenzie, "but for the grave

blunders of others, you would have canonised Sir Bartle Frere instead of speaking of him as you do. He is the ablest man you ever sent to South Africa. As to his personal character, I do not know a finer, manlier Christian."

Most of the mistakes in the government of South Africa have been caused by the fatal tendency to try and govern it from Downing Street. In Africa, as elsewhere, the British Government has too often failed to place due confidence in its own representative. It has listened to one-sided evidence and doctrinaire views, and has over-ruled or recalled Governors and High Commissioner, men of its own choice, who had every qualification for forming a just judgment on the scene of action, where alone a just judgment could be formed.

Other portions of Southern Africa under British influence include the great districts of Bechuanaland and Matabeleland.

In 1878, the Bechuanas invaded Griqualand West. They were repulsed by British volunteers. These in turn seized part of Bechuanaland.

Colonel Lanyon wrote to the High Commissioner that the natives in Bechuanaland had been subdued. From personal observation, he was strongly of the opinion that the British should continue to occupy the territory. "To withdraw now," he wrote, "would be regarded as weakness on our part. The chiefs, weak as they were before, would now be powerless for good, and the result would be that a state of anarchy would prevail which would be fatal to civilization, and dangerous to the interests of surrounding territories. One thing is, I think, quite certain, that the country will never be left again to the state of anarchy which prevailed there before."

Sir Bartle Frere wrote: "By refusing to accept the position of a Protecting Power, habitually acting as arbiter in inter-tribal disputes, we escape nothing save the name of responsibility. Its realities are already incurred, and when at length we unwillingly undertake the burden of dominion, we shall find it greatly aggravated by delay and neglect."

But the cry in England was "No further territory in South Africa—no more interference with the natives."

In 1879, the Secretary of State, Sir M. Hicks-Beach, addressed Sir Bartle Frere in these temporising terms: "The adoption of Colonel Lanyon's proposals would appear to involve the assumption of such increased responsibilities as to be open to very serious objection in present circumstances."

Captain Harrel was specially appointed by the High Commissioner to

visit the lately disturbed districts and to report. Captain Harrel's report contained this warning: "If left to themselves and to the sinister influence of those whose profit and policy it is to promote strife among them, it needs no prophet to predict that ere long the territory would become a kind of Alsatia for lawless adventurers, land speculators, and discontented subjects from the adjoining British provinces, and that before long, probably, through some untoward act, blood would be spilt, and her Majesty's Government might find itself involved in the necessity of fitting out an expedition as unsatisfactory in its results as it would be burdensome in expense."

Notwithstanding these opinions and warnings from its own officers on the spot, the British Government actually withdrew its force from the district. The expected result followed. Freebooters, discontented Boers and others overran the district. The troubles at length became so acute that in 1884 the British Government was compelled to despatch the Bechuanaland field force, under Sir Charles Warren, to restore order to the district. Sir Charles Warren was appointed Special Commissioner in the district; an unfortunate mistake was made in placing him under Sir Hercules Robinson, the High Commissioner at Capetown. This led to serious complications. The filibustering Boers were encouraged in their evil course; the natives were cruelly disappointed. The High Commissioner had, at that time, never been in the district, and, therefore, had no personal knowledge of it. Unfortunately, he generally adopted a policy of opposition in regard to the Special Commissioner's efforts towards settling affairs in the district. Bechuanaland borders on the Transvaal Republic. President Kruger desired to annex Bechuanaland to the Transvaal. President Kruger, from what he had seen, had come to believe that, so long as he provided for its trade interests in South Africa, the British Government would not be too particular about the love of justice, the honor of England, or the interests of the weaker and more dependent races. Acting on this principle, the Transvaal flag was hoisted over a British Protectorate, near Bechuanaland, in October, 1884. Kruger's agent, in hoisting the flag, made a glowing speech. "Youthful is our state," he said, "but acorns grow."

With characteristic sagacity, President Kruger had the cool impertinence to cable direct to her Majesty's Secretary of State in London, asking sanction of this proceeding. Kruger purposely ignored the High Commissioner in South Africa. The Minister in London would be more pliable, especially when he would

read Kruger's assurance, "Wish to assure you have acted only to maintain peace. No intention against Queen's interest and trade route. Wish to co-operate with her Majesty." President Kruger's idea of co-operation with her Majesty was to try and add part of her Majesty's territory to his Republic. In time he was forced to hand it back.

President Kruger soon gave a further proof of his astuteness as a politician.

The differences between Sir Charles Warren and Sir Hercules Robinson gradually reached an acute stage. Sir Charles Warren was doing good work in Bechuanaland—far too good to suit President Kruger. If Warren was allowed to have his way, Bechuanaland would never become part of the Transvaal. President Kruger had heard of the breach between Sir Charles and Sir Hercules. If the breach could only be widened, Sir Charles might be recalled. Happy thought! At once the President telegraphed Sir Hercules Robinson as follows: "With regard to Sir Charles Warren, his actions were not likely to promote peace and a good understanding in South Africa. In the interest of the whole of South Africa, I think another policy in Bechuanaland very much wanted. This Government remains always very anxious to co-operate with her Majesty's Government in restoring peace in South Africa."

Instead of Sir Hercules treating with the contempt it deserved this telegram from a ruler who was a source of constant trouble to the British, Sir Hercules actually wrote President Kruger that his views should be at once forwarded to her Majesty's Government.

Sir Hercules also had the bad taste to send President Kruger's telegram on to Sir Charles. Sir Charles was not at all disconcerted. He replied that President Kruger should commence to restore peace within his own territories. "He is at present," wrote Sir Charles, "allowing filibusterers to congregate in parties dangerously near to the border-line. Nicholas Gey is at present acting in a hostile manner to her Majesty's Government from within the Transvaal." Sir Charles Warren was more than able to hold his own against President Kruger.

In August, 1885, Judge Shippard was nominated administrator. Sir Charles Warren, after meeting with great success in his mission as special administrator, was recalled. In October, 1885, Bechuanaland was proclaimed British territory. In 1895 this territory was annexed to Cape Colony. President Kruger, however, has not ceased his efforts to extend the domains of the Transvaal. Recent developments may yet cause the British Government to take still more decisive

steps in that region. A more decisive policy twenty years ago might have saved the British Government much of its later troubles in this region. Let us hope that more serious trouble may not be in store for it.

In 1888, Lobengula, the Matabele king, gave the British supremacy in his dominions over all rivals. Immediately the king was besieged for concessions on account of valuable gold and diamond deposits which were supposed to exist. This led to the formation of the great British South Africa Company, under the skilful diplomacy of Mr. Cecil J. Rhodes. The Company was empowered to act as the representative of the Imperial Government.

Mr. Rhodes may have made mistakes. These mistakes have not tended to an increased respect on the part of the Boers or the natives for British laws or British honor. But Mr. Rhodes has also been instrumental in largely increasing the area of British influence in Africa. This work might have been done by the Home Government itself, and in its own way. The Home Government allowed Mr. Rhodes to do it in his own way. The Home Government, therefore, should support Mr. Rhodes.

Some day, no doubt, when the Confederation of the South African colonies is effected, this Company will meet a fate similar to that of the Hudson's Bay Company in Canada.

The managers of the great diamond mines are allowed to introduce a species of slavery in order to protect their interests.

All search for diamonds is done above ground. The labor in the mine is simply to attend to sending up the "reef," that is, the fragments of blue rock shattered by the blast, which is carried to the surface in iron buckets hauled on wire ropes by water power.

When brought to the surface the "reef" is tipped on to the depositing-floor, where it undergoes a variety of processes before it is ready for washing. Finally, what are called dry sortings are deposited on tables, and the diamonds are picked out by hands, black and white, under the strictest surveillance. The pretty red garnets and other pebbles are swept aside, and the diamonds are dropped into a sort of locked poor-box, until, finally, its contents, all classified and valued, lie on the office table of the Company on their way to impregnable safes.

Unlawfully to possess an uncut diamond subjects the individual to very severe penalties, the maximum being imprisonment with hard labor for fifteen years. But these penalties have proved insufficient to suppress what are called the I. D.



H. R. H. THE PRINCE OF WALES

B., or Illicit Diamond Buyers. The "compound system" is now employed. Each company has a large yard or compound, one side of which is enclosed by buildings, the other by sheet-iron walls ten feet high. This compound has an opening into the mine. In it the native workers sleep, eat, bathe, and receive medical attendance, should they be sick. And during the time they engage to serve—that is, two or three months—they are never allowed to go out of it. Of course on their departure they are rigorously searched; so, too, each day, as they come from the mine, when each man undergoes, naked, a searching of mouth, ears, nose, hair, and armpits. So rigorously is the search made that it is almost impossible to conceal a diamond.

In 1873 the Ashantees, a tribe of warlike negroes of West Africa, revived an old quarrel with the British authorities. An expedition under the leadership of Sir Garnet Wolseley was organized in Britain.

The expedition started from Portsmouth in September. It was back again at the same port in March, 1874, with its work well accomplished. It was not the Ashantees—fierce warriors as they were—that were to be dreaded, but the climate. All had to be accomplished in the cooler months. "The success of the campaign was a question of days, almost of hours, and the victory was snatched out of the very jaws of approaching sun and fever." Sir Garnet Wolseley maintaining his reputation as a wonderful organizer and leader, timed himself almost to a day. He pushed on rapidly to Coomassie, burnt it, and began his return to the coast.

The main street of Coomassie was found to lead to the death-grove, or place of execution, which, in all accounts of the Ashantee Kingdom, occupies so conspicuous a position. There the British soldiers stood aghast at the terrible spectacle of thirty or forty decapitated bodies in the last stages of corruption, and countless skulls, lying piled in heaps and scattered over a wide area. M. Bonat, who was for some years a prisoner in Coomassie, tells us that he has seen some two or three hundred slaves slain at one time, as customary after the death of the King's sister; and as many as a dozen slaves dragged to the grove, and executed in a most barbarous manner, on any ordinary occasion. If it be true that about a thousand slaves, offenders, rebels and others are put to death annually, we may form a tolerably accurate conjecture of the number of victims who have helped to swell the terrible death-roll of the Coomassie Golgotha since the time of Sy Tutu, the founder of the present dynasty, in the middle of the eighteenth century. It



H. R. H. THE PRINCESS OF WALES.

may safely be computed that the sanguinary 'customs' of the Ashantee Kingdom has cost the lives of between 130,000 and 140,000 victims.

Wolseley had not got far on his return to the coast when envoys from the king met him, proposing terms of peace. One part of the treaty made by Sir Garnet Wolseley with King Coffee provided for the abolishment of human sacrifices. There are supposed to be vast gold mines in the Ashantee country, but they are under the protection of local demons, and, therefore, not much worked. It is said that the only good or glory Britain got out of the Ashantee war was a sense of the admirable management with which it was conducted.

The empire of King Coffee was broken up after the war; his prestige and power were gone. The nation split up into little clans or kingdoms; the king at Coomassie having, however, power to call out the chiefs as his feudatories in case of war. King Coffee died not long after, and those who came after him seem to have had neither his power, his prestige, nor his capacity.

On the return of the Ashantee expedition, the troops were reviewed by the Queen at Windsor. The expedition cost the British taxpayer about five million dollars.

Africa is rapidly securing the benefits of advanced civilization. There are two lines of steamers running from England to all ports from Sierra Leone to St. Paul de Loanda; there are steamboats on the Congo, on the Niger, on Lake Tanganyika, and on Lake Nyasa. They have plied, with occasional interruptions, upon Lake Albert and the Victoria Nyanza. There are Protestant missionaries and missions scattered all over Congo Free State, to say nothing of East Africa, besides Cardinal Lavigerie's White Fathers—and yet, alas! rum, whisky, gin, and brandy have been literally poured into Africa, and tribes where Christianity had seemed to be making progress now have their head-men drunkards.

Mr. Johnston, a man who has, probably, been more closely brought face to face with the subject than any other official in Africa, says that it is evident, from the foundations of old villages, and fragments of pottery buried several feet under the soil, that Central Africa was once peopled by races very superior to those now inhabiting the land. The slave-trade became prevalent when the Arabs first established their influence upon the coast, and it obtained an enormous development when the Portuguese succeeded the Arabs in power, and introduced guns and gunpowder. Then it was that native races were taught to hunt down and to destroy each other. The constant hunting of man by man kept the whole



HON. SIR CHARLES TUPPER, BART., K.C.M.G., C.B.

country in a state of unrest. Each native felt that at any moment his people might be attacked by another tribe, have their homes broken up and their wives and children sold. Consequently, even now, except when they are settled near Europeans, they lead a hand-to-mouth existence, just growing enough food for the support of their small community, and not daring to venture on any enterprise or industry which might attract the cupidity of others. From every point of view, philanthropic and economic, we are right in trying to extirpate the slave-trade in Central Africa.

The Colonial and Indian Exhibition, or "The Colindries," as it was popularly called, was held at South Kensington, London, in 1886. It comprised an exhibition of the products, manufactures, and arts of India and the Colonies. It was a success in every way. It was inaugurated by the appointment of a Royal Commission on the 8th of November, 1884. Its success was largely due to the exertions of H.R.H. the Prince of Wales and Sir P. C. Owen, Director of the South Kensington Museum. It was opened with great splendor by the Queen, in person, on the 4th of May, 1886, and closed on the 10th of November following. An ode by Lord Tennyson, set to music by Sir Arthur Sullivan, was one of the features of the opening day. The exhibition was visited by 5,550,745 persons. The exhibits from the various colonies were most creditable. The colonial agents resident in London were most indefatigable in their attention to the exhibitors. The Canadian exhibitors recall with pleasure the attention bestowed upon them by Sir Charles Tupper, then Canadian High Commissioner at London.

Following the very successful Colonial and Indian Exhibition came the conception and establishment of the Imperial Institute. The idea was first suggested by the Prince of Wales in a letter to the Lord Mayor of London on the 13th of September, 1886. It was proposed to establish the Institute as a memorial of the Queen's Jubilee. The idea met with immediate and universal favor. An influential committee was appointed, and active measures taken to push the matter to a successful conclusion. The Institute has received many munificent donations. The native princes of India have given very large sums; the Indian Government grants a thousand pounds annually for the museum; Canada has given one hundred thousand dollars; the Australian Colonies have given hearty co-operation. Two million dollars were definitely promised by the close of the year 1887. The foundation stone of the Institute was laid by the Queen, with elaborate ceremonies, on the 4th of July, 1887. On the 10th of May, 1893, the

Institute was inaugurated by the Queen in the presence of the Royal Family and a large assembly of illustrious and distinguished persons. There was an address to the Queen from the executive body, read by the Prince of Wales, describing the objects of the Institute. The Queen, in her reply, declared the Institute open, and concluded with an earnest prayer that "It may never cease to flourish as a lasting emblem of the unity and loyalty of my Empire." The



LORD MELBOURNE.

Born 1779—Died 1848.

ceremony was closed by a benediction from the Archbishop of Canterbury. The royal procession proceeded from Buckingham Palace to the Institute, both sides of the route being lined by artillery and a vast concourse of people of all ranks. Among the military engaged during the day were contingents from Canada, Australia, and India. The beautiful key used by the Queen in opening the Institute was composed of gold and other metals brought from the Colonies, and was

made by Messrs. Chubb of London. On the 17th of May there was a grand reception by the Prince of Wales, of the Royal Family, ministry, eminent officials, foreign princes, and others; about 20,000 persons attending.

Sir George Baden Powell is of the opinion that the Institute will popularise the idea of our great Empire, and make the public mind familiar with the varied affairs, products and plans of that great Empire. The Prince of Wales, in his original letter to the Lord Mayor, well phrased its purpose: "To stimulate emigration to the British territories where it is required, to expand the trade between the different British communities, and to draw closer the bonds which unite the Empire." Thus the Institute becomes one of those steps in constitutional development which are in accordance with the genuine British method of modifying the Constitution. The Institute will also serve the new purpose of enabling colonists from the different Colonies to compare notes on subjects or industries in which they take a common interest. It will further do right good service in eradicating popular ignorance in the United Kingdom regarding India and the Colonies.

The national sentiment is now centred on the Imperial ascendancy of the race, and through all classes the idea of a great United Empire has taken such hold that even the barest suspicion of treason to that idea suffices to hurl from power the most influential statesmen. This idea of the unity of the race and the integrity of its realms, at one time the ridiculed dream of theorists, at another the impracticable scheme of too ardent politicians, has become a first article in the avowed creed of every public man in the United Kingdom. At the last general election there, there was not a candidate but spoke and wrote of his absolute intention to uphold the unity of the Empire.

At the Institute reception on the 17th of May this intensity of feeling made itself felt in a rather disagreeable manner. Mr. Gladstone has never been a strong Imperialist; many think he has been antagonistic to the Imperial Federation scheme. Multitudes of people at that reception made it clearly manifest to the world that even the long service and exceptional reputation of a distinguished statesman are nothing in the balance of public opinion when weighed against a supposed or asserted intention to promote the disintegration of the British Empire.

Imperial Federation is the catchword that has seized upon the popular favor. Yet for all thoughtful statesmen the phrase is the source of much anxious pon-

dering. The question is constantly propounded, "What can be actually done, what real, tangible work can be undertaken that shall secure the substantial realization of this great idea?" There are men with cut-and-dried federal systems; there are men with extensions and adaptations of the existing Parliamentary system; there are men with complete and men with incomplete constitutions for one wide Empire. But, to the practical mind, the process by which the Empire has grown appears to be the process by which it will be consolidated; the history of the mother country in the past contains the only reliable indications of the history in the future of that mother country and its numerous Colonial offspring. That history is the tale of successive developments, of a series of growths and changes usually of such slight comparative importance as almost to escape notice. British history affords no example of sudden new reforms, no magnificent paper constitutions, no brand-new codes and institutions—it is only a record of perpetual growth.

The Imperial Institute is destined to do much towards consolidating the various parts of the Empire. But to do its work properly it must be judiciously managed. It must not be allowed to become simply a social centre. It must be maintained in living touch with the Colonies by means of representatives on the governing body who are themselves in active co-operation with those Colonies. The Imperial Institute must embody the Imperial idea, holding the balance justly between all localities, interests, and influences; seeking to provide full knowledge in support of the zealous pride in their Empire now so widely instilled into the nation; affording convincing reason to all Imperialists for the faith that is in them; spreading broadcast all information regarding that commerce and industry on which the Empire is based, and upholding and explaining the secure law and order which dominate the whole of the Queen's wide dominions. Thus may the Imperial Institute become an invaluable agent in preserving those influences which built up this great Empire in the past, maintain it in the present, and bid fair to secure it long life in the future. Our great Empire is, to use Lord Rosebery's eloquent words, "the greatest secular agency for good the world has yet seen." Every loyal subject throughout the Empire wishes God-speed to the Imperial Institute, and most heartily joins in the prayer of our Queen and Empress when declaring the building open, that "It may never cease to flourish as a lasting emblem of the unity and loyalty of my Empire."

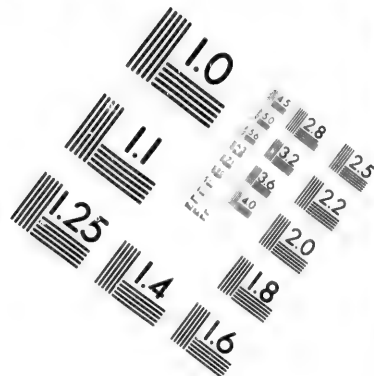
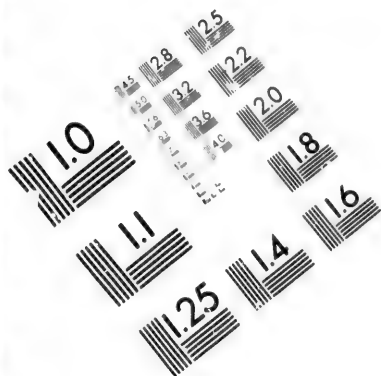
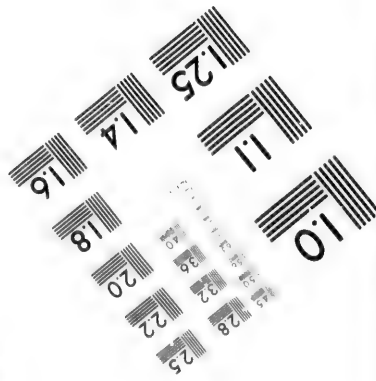
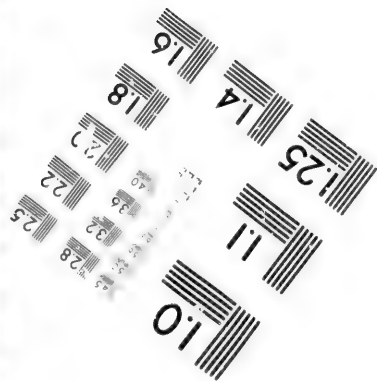
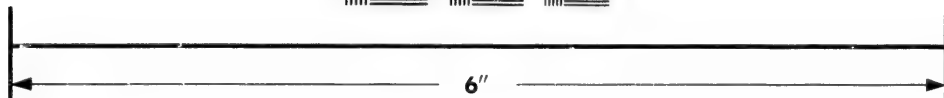
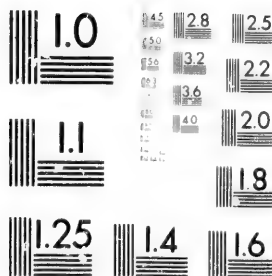


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CHAPTER VIII.

The Royal Family.

Death of the Prince Consort—The Queen's Sorrow—The Albert Memorial—The Prince of Wales' Visits to Canada and India—His Serious Illness—Thanksgiving over his recovery—The Death of the Princess Alice—The Queen as an Author.

URING one of the Prince's rare, brief absences, the Queen wrote in her Journal: "I feel very lonely without my dear master, and though I know other people are separated, I feel that I could never get accustomed to it. . . Without him everything loses its interest. It will cause a terrible pang for me to be separated from him even for two days, and I pray God not to let me survive him."

But the separation came. Death stepped in between them, and, bearing him away, left her alone to bear the burden of life, heavier by the added burden of unavailing grief. Too late she knew that the Prince's malady had been misunderstood, made light of, inadequately treated. How bitter to look back on the past and see how much was left undone that might have been done to save the life dear to her as her own.

The "Reminiscences" of Count Vitzthum give us the first authentic information as to the real nature of the Prince's illness.

"The illness," writes Count Vitzthum, "which snatched away the Prince so suddenly in his forty-second year, was at first nothing but a gastric fever, as his private secretary, Mr. Ruland, had informed me by letter on the day before I left for Lisbon. This so-called Windsor fever, so frequently recurrent at that season in the badly-drained town, soon, however, became typhoid. The Prince did not seem to be really ill, though as early as the 23rd or 24th of November his mind strangely wandered. His faithful valet, Lohlein, was the only member of the Royal household who seems to have given advice that would have saved the Prince's life had it been acted on. 'Living here will kill your Royal Highness,' he frequently repeated. 'You must leave Windsor and go to Germany for a time to rest and recover strength.' These well-meant warnings passed unheeded by the patient, who showed the listlessness so foreign to his nature, but so characteristic of this disease. The most serious sign was sleeplessness and a total

want of appetite. All the symptoms show that. I had the same illness myself last year. My own experience, therefore, makes me convinced that the sick man, from the indifference he showed for everything, especially for the preservation of his own life, had no idea of the danger he was in. This is the peculiarity of typhoid fever, which so completely shatters the nervous system. It requires, after timely diagnosis, complete rest and gentle treatment.

"Above all things the Prince seems to have had no doctor attending him who was capable of recognizing the gravity of the disease in time. Unfortunately,



ST. GEORGE'S CHAPEL, WINDSOR.

his physician, Dr. Bayly, had been killed in a railway accident the year before. Sir James Clark had virtually retired from practice, and probably had but a limited knowledge of the advance made by modern science in the treatment of typhoid. As physician to her Majesty his position had been for the last twenty years a sinecure. Her Majesty does not know what it is to be ill. Hence to the last moment she clung to vain hopes in regard to the condition of her husband, which Sir James very possibly confirmed. In consequence of the urgent representations of Ministers, Dr. Watson and Sir Henry Holland were summoned in

addition to Dr. Jenner. Sir Henry Holland is said to have been the first to have had the courage, when it was too late, to tell the Queen the truth.

"The news of the death of King Dom Pedro, whom the Prince had loved as a son, had deeply affected him As he himself confessed, he hardly closed his eyes from the time he received the news till the fever actually set in. The troubles with America also embittered his last hours. He was so tired that at times he nodded off to sleep when standing. He felt always cold, and ate scarcely anything. Already in the autumn at Balmoral he had a presentiment of his death. So strong was this feeling ten days before he died that he enjoined Princess Alice, having ascertained that the Queen was not in the room, to write and tell her sister in Berlin that their father would not recover. The next day he asked the Princess whether she had done so, and she replied that she had not. On the 13th, the day before his death, he got up and transacted some business with his private secretary, Mr. Ruland. The Queen drove out, and during the drive appeared much easier about her husband's condition. On her return she found him in bed, unconscious, with the extremities ice-cold. Now for the first time they all realized the danger. Princess Alice, on her own responsibility, sent for the Prince of Wales, who was then at Cambridge. Sir Charles Phipps telegraphed during the night for the Duke of Cambridge, who left London by the first train on the 14th, and arrived at Windsor at 8 o'clock in the morning. The alarming symptoms had increased, and the doctors did not conceal that the Prince had only a few hours to live. The Queen alone still deceived herself with hopes, and telegraphed early on the 14th to Berlin, 'Dear Vic, Papa has had a good night's rest, and I hope the danger is over.' She thought her husband was a little stronger. 'We are very much frightened, but don't and won't give up hope,' said Dr. Watson. But the breathing was the alarming thing—it was so rapid. There was what they call a dusky hue about his face and hands which I knew was not good. I made some observation about it to Dr. Jenner, and was alarmed by seeing he seemed to notice it. Albert folded his arms, and began arranging his hair, just as he used to do when well, and he was dressing. These were said to be bad signs. Strange! as though he were preparing for another and greater journey."

In the afternoon he was able to say to the Queen "Gutes Frauchen," and to kiss her; and then she tells he "gave a sort of piteous moan, or rather sigh, not of pain, but as if he felt that he was leaving, and laid his head upon my shoulder, and I



THE QUEEN AND PRINCE ALBERT.

put my arm under his. But the feeling passed away again, and he seemed to wander and to doze, and yet to know all. Sometimes I could not catch what he said. Occasionally he spoke French. Alice came in and kissed him, and he took her hand. Bertie, Helena, Louise, and Arthur came in, one after the other, and took his hand, and Arthur kissed it. But he was dozing, and did not perceive them. Then he opened his dear eyes and asked for Sir Charles Phipps, who came in and kissed his hand; but then again his dear eyes were closed. General Grey and Sir Thomas Biddulph each came in and kissed his hand, and were dreadfully overcome. It was a terrible moment, but, thank God, I was able to command myself, and to be perfectly calm, and remained sitting at his side."

"*Es ist kleines Frauchen,*" ('Tis your own little wife) whispered the Queen later, as she bent over him, and he bowed his head and kissed her.

Again, as evening advanced, her Majesty retired to weep in the next room; but a rapid change set in, and Princess Alice was sent to summon her Majesty to return. The Queen took the Prince's hand and knelt by his side; on the other side was Princess Alice; at the foot of the bed were the Prince of Wales and Princess Helena.

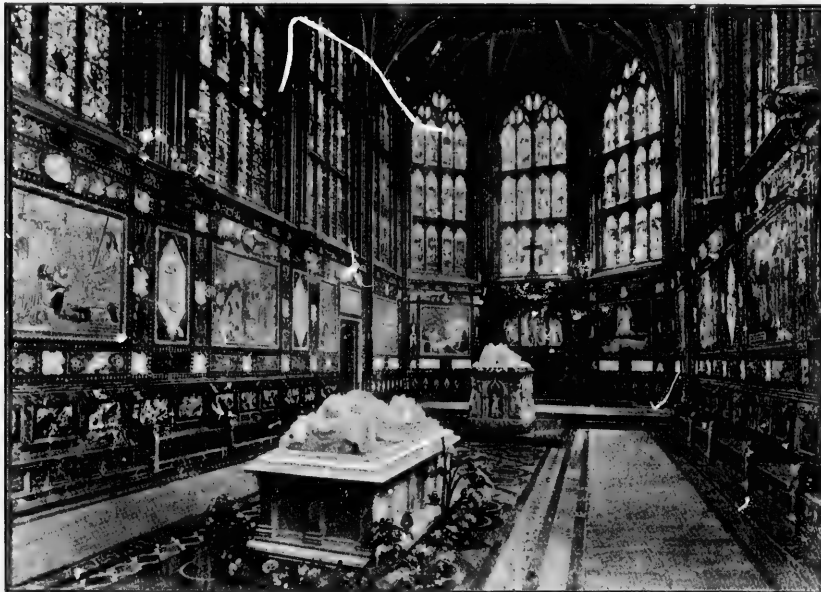
Prince Ernest Leiningen, the physicians, the Prince's faithful valet, General the Hon. Robert Bruce, the Dean of Windsor, Sir Charles Phipps, and General Grey were all in the room. The hush was profound.

As the great clock of the Castle struck the third quarter after ten, he passed away.

Writing of this day and of the Princess Alice, a member of her household said: "The last Sunday that the Prince passed on earth was a very blessed one for Princess Alice to look back upon. He was very ill and weak, and she spent the afternoon with him alone, while the others were in church. He begged to have his sofa drawn to the window that he might see the sky and the clouds sailing past. He then asked her to play to him, and she went through several of his favorite hymns and chorales. After she had played some time, she looked round and saw him lying back, his hands folded as if in prayer, and his eyes shut. He lay so long without moving that she thought he had fallen asleep. Presently he looked up and smiled. She said, 'Were you asleep, dear papa?' 'Oh, no,' he answered, 'only I have such sweet thoughts.' During his illness his hands were often folded in prayer, and when he did speak his serene face showed that the 'happy thoughts' were with him to the end.

"The Princess Alice's fortitude amazed us all. She saw from the first that both her father's and her mother's firmness depended upon her firmness, and she set herself to the duty. He loved to speak openly of his condition, and had many wishes to express. He loved to hear hymns and prayers. He could not speak to the Queen of himself, for she could not bear to listen, and shut her eyes to the danger."

"Just as the Queen had failed," writes Count Vitzthum, who obtained his information from the Duke of Cambridge, "to recognize the danger till the last



THE ALBERT MEMORIAL CHAPEL, WINDSOR.

moment, so also she appears not to have realised, for the first few days after all was over, the full extent of her loss. Her composure was almost unnatural, and it was not till her return to Osborne that she awoke to the full consciousness of this unexpected blow. 'Her Majesty is unnaturally quiet,' was the remark of an eye-witness two days after the event. The Duchess of Cambridge was the first member of the Royal Family who ventured to write to the Queen. She described the answer of the Princess Alice as 'heartrending.' Her Majesty sat all day in

dumb despair, staring vacantly round her, and it was only with the utmost difficulty that the Royal sign manual could be obtained for the most urgent business. It was the happiness of Princess Alice to be able to intervene for a while between her mother's grief and the demands of the business of the nation."

How the nation mourned for him we know. Count Vitzthum writes: "Mr. Disraeli spoke to me with deep and heartfelt sorrow of the irreparable loss that England had sustained. 'With Prince Albert,' he said, 'we have buried our Sovereign. This German Prince has governed England for twenty-one years with a wisdom and energy such as none of our kings have ever shown. He was the permanent private secretary, the permanent Prime Minister of the Queen. If he had out-lived some of the 'old stagers,' he would have given us, while retaining all constitutional guarantees, the blessings of absolute government. Of us younger men who are qualified to enter the Cabinet, there is not one who would not willingly have bowed to his experience. We are now in the midst of a change of Government. What to-morrow will bring forth no man can tell. To-day we are sailing in the deepest gloom, with night and darkness all around us.'" It was reserved, however, for Lord Tennyson to voice the truest feelings of the people:

He is gone:

We know him now; all narrow jealousies
Are silent; and we see him as he moved,
How modest, kindly, all accomplished, wise,
With what sublime repression of himself,
And in what limits, and how tenderly;
Not swaying to this faction or to that;
Not making his high place the lawless perch
Of wing'd ambitions, nor a vantage ground
For pleasure, but thro' all this tract of years
Wearing the white flower of a blameless life,
 . . . A Prince indeed,
Beyond all titles, and a household name,
Hereafter, thro' all times, Albert the Good.

Break not, O woman's heart, but still endure;
Break not, for thou art Royal, but endure,
Remembering all the beauty of that star
Which shone so close beside thee, that ye made
One light together, but has past and left
The Crown a lonely splendor.

May all love,

His love, unseen but felt, o'ershadow thee,
The love of all thy sons encompass thee,
The love of all thy daughters cherish thee,
The love of all thy people comfort thee,
Till God's love set thee at his side again.

The outburst of universal praise which followed quickly on the outburst of national grief was joined in even by the very men who had done their best to make life bitter for the Prince, and beneficent work impossible to him. Journals that used weekly to denounce his treachery to British interests, his slavish obsequiousness to foreign potentates, now praised him for his single-hearted devotion to the land of his adoption.

Some, and those the Prince's unwavering friends, feared that the country in its regret for former injustice would oversing his praise, to the impairment of his lasting renown. The fear was groundless. In the "Life of the Prince Consort" her Majesty laid before her people the contemporary evidence of her husband's life and character, from his infancy to his last hour. From the vast bodies of diaries, letters, memoirs, official memoranda and political communications to foreign sovereigns, there has been compiled an authoritative history of "Albert the Good." Thanks to the Queen, Britain and the world now know the man as he was, the brightest example and the finest type of princely worth given to mankind for many a day.

Count Vizthum writes: "He was complete master in his own house, and the active centre of an Empire whose power extends to every quarter of the globe. It was a gigantic task for a young German prince to think and act for all these millions of British subjects. All the threads were gathered together in his hands. For twenty-one years not a single despatch was ever sent from the Foreign Office which the Prince had not seen, studied, and, if necessary, altered. Not a single report of any importance from an Ambassador was allowed to be kept from him. The Secretary of State for the Colonies, the Secretary for War, the Home Secretary, the First Lord of the Admiralty—all handed to him every day just as large bundles of papers as did the Foreign Office. Everything was read, commented upon, and discussed. In addition to all this the Prince kept up private correspondence with foreign Sovereigns, with British Ambassadors and Envoys, with the Governor-General of India, and with the Governors of the

various colonies. No appointment in Church or State, in the Army or Navy, was ever made without his approbation. At Court not the smallest thing was done without his order. No British Cabinet Minister has ever worked so hard during the Session of Parliament—and that is saying a good deal—as the Prince Consort did for twenty-one years. And the Ministers come and go; or at any rate, if frequently and long in office, as was the case with Palmerston and Russell, they have four or five months' holiday every year. The Prince had no holidays at all. He was always in harness.

"The Continental notion that Royalty in England is a sinecure was signally refuted by the example of Prince Albert. As for the charge sometimes alleged against him, that owing to his liberalism he yielded too much to the Ministers—in other words, to Parliament—it is wholly groundless. The influence exercised on the Government by the Crown is a power which makes itself felt, not merely in crises at home and abroad, but continually. This influence, is, however, indirect, and wears a different garb in Britain to that which it assumes, for example, in Russia and France. Prince Albert's task was all the more difficult, since his decision depended on unknown data, and he had to reckon with the changing factors of a constitution the foundations of which have been undermined for years by the rising waves of democracy. If, in spite of all this, the Crown's game, as Prince Metternich expressed it, has been well played, this result is doubly creditable to the late Prince, inasmuch as he could only direct the game—not play it himself. With what tact and skill he did so is proved by the fact that, with the exception of the British Ministers and a few intimate friends, no one had any idea of the actual position of the Prince during his lifetime. Those who knew it were pledged to keep the secret, which now for the first time since his death has been revealed to the nation.

"As truth appears to have been the most prominent attribute of the Prince, this necessary game of concealment must have been all the more painful to him. The daily regard for public opinion gave rise to misunderstandings, to over-comes which required an amount of elasticity which was bound gradually to weaken. Sparing as the deceased was of sleep, it is difficult to understand how he found time to grapple with the mass of business. He could never call an hour his own. The continual receptions, notwithstanding the uniformity of an almost cloister-like Court life, no less than the mere physical strain caused by the



ALBERT MEMORIAL, HYDE PARK, LONDON.

continual change of residence, cut up the day into pieces and left scarcely any time for rest and reflection. The wonder is how he found it possible, in the midst of these occupations, to attend with laboring conscientiousness to the cares of government; to conduct personally the education of nine children; to prosecute his studies in all branches of human knowledge; to astonish men with the results of these studies; and at the same time to live, as he did, for art, himself a student and constant patron of music, painting and poetry."

Mr. Gladstone, between whom and the Prince there was not in all points cordial sympathy, says of the biography written by Sir Theodore Martin at the command of her Majesty:

"It has a yet higher title to our esteem in its faithful care and solid merit as a biography. From the midst of the hottest glow of earthly splendor, it has drawn forth to public contemplation a genuine piece of solid, sterling, and unworldly excellence, a pure and holy life, from which every man, and most of all every Christian, may learn many an ennobling lesson, on which he may do well to meditate when he communes with his own heart and in his chamber, and is still."

An excellent illustration of the Prince's ceaseless oversight of public affairs, and of his intense desire to avoid needless international disputes, is afforded in his treatment of the despatch over the "Trent" affair. Lord John Russell's draft despatch to the United States President was very blunt. The excitement in England was intense. The Prince rose from his sleepless bed at dawn on the morning of November 28, to write a draft of a memorandum on the subject which he thought might be of use. These were the words he wrote, in pain and weakness; the last he ever penned:

"The Queen returns these important drafts, which upon the whole she approves; but she cannot help feeling that the main draft—that for communication to the American Government—is somewhat meagre. She should have liked to have seen the expression of a hope that the American captain did not act under instructions, or, if he did, he misapprehended them. That the United States Government must be fully aware that the British Government could not allow its flag to be insulted, and the security of its mail communications be put in jeopardy; and her Majesty's Government are unwilling to believe that the United States Government intended wantonly to put an insult upon this country, and to add to their many distressing complications by forcing a question

of dispute upon us, and that we are glad, therefore, to believe that upon a full consideration of the circumstances of the undoubted breach of international law committed, they would spontaneously offer such redress as alone could satisfy this country; viz., the restoration of the unfortunate passengers, and a suitable apology."

Dec. 23, 1861, the Prince's remains were temporarily deposited in the entrance of the Royal Vault in St. George's Chapel. On the 15th of March, 1862, Her Majesty laid the first stone of the magnificent mausoleum at Frogmore. On the 18th of December his remains were transferred to this mausoleum. The sarcophagus is composed of the largest known block of granite without flaw.

In the autumn her Majesty visited Balmoral. The Rev. Dr. Macleod, one of her private chaplains, records in his diary: "I was summoned to the Queen. She was alone. She met me, and with an unutterably sad expression which filled my eyes with tears, at once began to speak about the Prince. She spoke of his excellencies, his love, his cheerfulness, how he was everything to her. She said she never shut her eyes to trials, but liked to look them in the face; how she would never shrink from duty; but that all was at present done mechanically; that her highest ideas of purity and love were obtained from him; and that God would not be displeased with her love. But there was nothing morbid about her grief. I spoke freely to her about all I felt regarding him, the love of the nation and their sympathy, and took every opportunity of bringing before her the reality of God's love and sympathy, her noble calling as a Queen, the value of her life to the nation, the blessedness of prayer."

During this visit her Majesty began the erection, on the summit of Craig Low-rigan, overlooking Balmoral Palace, of the Prince's cairn. It is 35 feet high, and bears the following inscription:

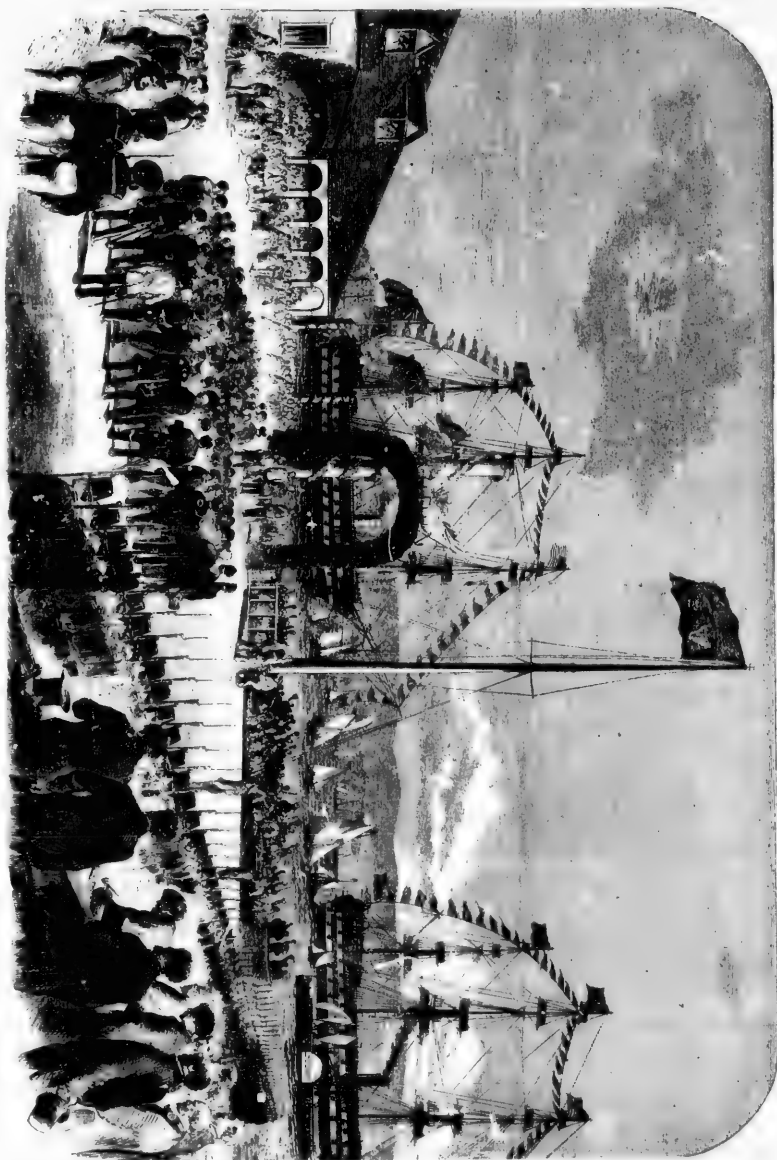
"To the Beloved Memory of Albert, the Great and Good Prince Consort. Erected by his broken-hearted Widow, Victoria R., August 21, 1862." Upon another dressed slab, a few inches below the above, is this quotation: "He being made perfect in a short time, fulfilled a long time; for his soul pleased the Lord, therefore hastened He to take him away from the wicked."—*Wisdom of Solomon*.

Towards the end of the year the Queen received "from many English widows" a magnificently bound Bible as a token of sympathy. In her letter of thanks she says: "I am deeply touched by the gift of a Bible 'from many widows,' and by the very kind and affectionate address which accompanied it. . . . Pray express

to all these kind sister-widows the deep and heartfelt gratitude of their widowed Queen, who can never feel grateful enough for the universal sympathy she has received, and continues to receive, from her loyal and devoted subjects. But what she values far more is their appreciation of her adored and perfect husband. To her, the only sort of consolation she experiences is in the constant sense of his unseen presence, and the blessed thought of the eternal union hereafter, which will make the bitter anguish of the present appear as naught."

But though she mourned, her Majesty was not forgetful of her regal duties. True, she refused to preside at the festivities of the Palace, to hold levées and drawing-rooms, to give Court balls. If these ceremonious observances make the Sovereign's most important work, then Queen Victoria has neglected her public duties to indulge her private grief. Let us listen to a statesman on this. The Duke of Argyll, in a speech at a great gathering in Scotland, said: "I think it a circumstance worthy of observation, and one which ought to be known to all the people of this country, that during all the years of the Queen's affliction, during which she has lived necessarily in comparative retirement, she has omitted no part of that public duty which concerns her as Sovereign of this country; that on no occasion during her grief has she neglected work in those public duties which belong to her exalted position; and I am sure that when the Queen re-appears again on more public occasions the people of this country will regard her only with increased affection from the recollection that during all the time of her care and sorrow she had devoted herself without one day's intermission to those cares of Government which belong to her position as Sovereign of this country."

A meeting to arrange for a great national memorial to the memory of the Prince Consort was held at the Mansion House, London, on the 14th of January, 1862. Definite plans were adopted and contributions poured in freely. Three hundred thousand dollars were received in voluntary contributions, which was supplemented by a grant of two hundred and fifty thousand dollars from the Imperial Parliament. The nature of the memorial was referred to the Queen herself. In a letter to the Lord Mayor of London, dated February 19th, 1862, Sir Charles Grey says, on behalf of her Majesty: "It would be more in accordance with her own feelings, and she believes with those of the country in general, that the monument should be directly personal to its object. After giving the subject her maturest consideration her Majesty has come to the conclusion that



THE PRINCE OF WALES IN CANADA.
The Landing at Halifax.

nothing would be more appropriate, provided it is on a scale of sufficient grandeur, than an obelisk to be erected in Hyde Park on the site of the Great Exhibition of 1851, or on some spot immediately contiguous to it. Nor would any proposal that could be made be more gratifying to the Queen herself personally; for she can never forget that the Prince himself had highly approved of a memorial of this character being raised on the same spot in remembrance of the Great Exhibition." In a second letter the Queen expressed her intention of personally contributing towards erecting the memorial, that "It might be recorded in future ages as raised by the Queen and the people of a grateful country to the memory of its benefactor." Shortly after a committee was appointed to fulfil her Majesty's desire. As a suitable block of granite could not be obtained, the proposal for an obelisk was given up, and other suggestions were considered. At length the Queen approved of the design of Mr. Gilbert G. Scott, for a magnificent Eleanor Cross, with a spire 150 feet high, accompanied by statues and other appropriate decorations. The memorial was given over to Her Majesty on the 1st July, 1872. A magnificent gilt statue of the Prince, having been placed in position on the memorial, was uncovered on the 9th of March, 1876.

In 1860 H. R. H. the Prince of Wales made an extended tour of Canada and the United States. He left England on the 10th of July and returned on the 15th of November. On the 10th of July his Royal Highness embarked at Plymouth on board H.M.S. *Hero*, 91, Captain H. Seymour, which ship was accompanied by the *Ariadne* and the *Flying Fish*. The suite accompanying the Prince comprised the following: the Duke of Newcastle, Secretary of State for the Colonies; the Earl of St. Germain, Lord Steward of her Majesty's household; Major-General the Hon. R. Bruce, Governor to the Prince; Major Teesdale, R.A., and Capt. George Gray, Equerries, and Dr. Aekland.

On Monday, the 22nd of July, the ships of the Royal squadron arrived at St. John's, Newfoundland. Here the Prince was accorded a royal reception. The people had gathered in thousands. Towards evening it was announced that the Prince would not land till the next morning. If the people could not see the Prince they were determined to see something else. Instead of returning home to bed, there to refresh themselves for the morrow, they hung about the streets and sang songs and fired crackers, and drank healths, and gave themselves up to a general unmitigated "spree." The Colonial buildings were illuminated with numerous lanterns, and from the roof very many fire rockets were discharged.

From the lofty towers of the Catholic Cathedral, on ropes reaching to the ground, descending at an angle of about forty-five degrees, colored lamps were suspended, and a magnificent peal of bells sounded forth the notes of welcome.

Halifax was sighted early on the morning of Monday, the 30th. The *Hero* and accompanying ships were telegraphed from the outposts, and at 7 a.m. the promised signal—the Union Jack flying on the flagstaff, and three guns fired in quick succession from the Citadel—told that the Royal squadron was near the harbor. The appearance of the noble ships as they majestically neared the city, the *Hero* leading, was very fine. Battery after battery, in regular succession—York Redoubt, Point Pleasant, Fort Clarence, George's Island, the Lumber Yard and the citadel—saluted the Royal Standard of England with Royal salutes of twenty-one guns. The steamers *Eastern State* and *Neptune*, the *Daring*, and a number of yachts, gaily dressed for the occasion, and crowded with ladies and gentlemen, met the ships of the Royal fleet, and accompanied them up the harbor. For several days previous visitors from all parts of the province had been crowding into the city to witness the festivities. These, with the citizens, to the number of many thousands, viewed the animated panorama which the harbor presented, from the glacis of the citadel, from the house tops, and from the numerous wharves, from which enthusiastic cheers went up as the *Hero* passed by. At a few minutes past 9 a.m. the ships arrived at their moorings under a Royal salute from the flagship *Nile*, the *Valorous*, and other ships of the station in port. His Excellency the Lieutenant-Governor immediately proceeded on board from the dockyard, and his Excellency Rear-Admiral Milne from the *Nile*, to pay their respects to the distinguished stranger.

At 10 a.m. it was announced, by a signal from the masthead of the *Nile*, that his Royal Highness would land at 12 noon. Preparations were being made for the proper reception of the Prince on landing, and for the procession to escort him to the Government House. The streets through which his Royal Highness was to pass on his way to the Government House, the distance being about a mile and a quarter, were lined with the troops, and volunteers, and with the members of the various societies.

At one point of the procession a scene presented itself by which his Royal Highness was visibly affected. On the Grand Parade, opposite the head of George Street, a stage was erected on which were seated nearly four thousand children, in such a position that, at a glance, every one of the four thousand little

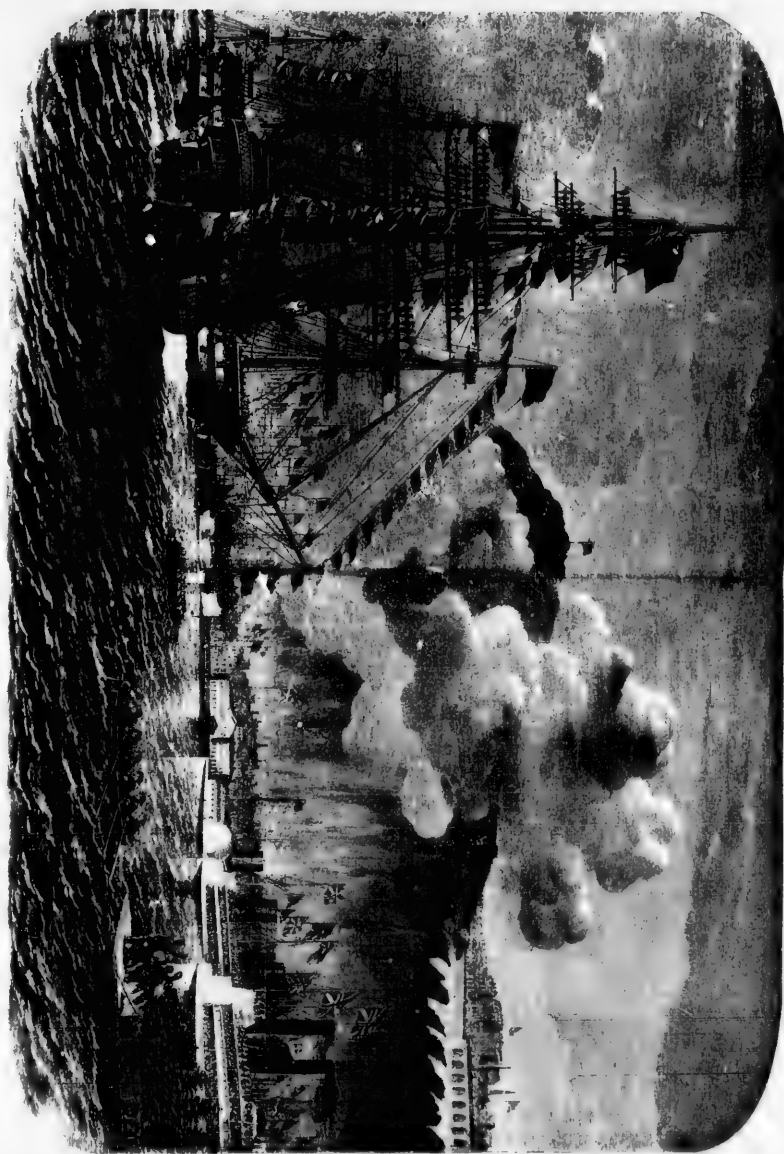
ones could see and be seen by their future Sovereign as he ascended the hill. On his Royal Highness coming in full view of the platform the four thousand children rose simultaneously, and waving a welcome, sang the National Anthem, two verses of which, as given below, were written for the occasion :

Welcome ! our Royal Guest ;
 Welcome ! from every breast ;
 From every tongue ;
 From hearts both warm and true,
 Hearts that beat high for you,
 Loudly our welcome due -
 To thee be sung !

Prince of a lofty line,
 The virtues all be thine,
 Which grace our Queen !
 To her we pay through thee,
 Love, faith and loyalty—
 Homage which fits the free ;
 God save the Queen !

Quebec was reached on Saturday, the 18th of August. Admiral Milne issued from the *Nile* a general memorandum respecting the fleet, as follows : "On H. M. S. *Hero*, with standard of his Royal Highness Prince of Wales, neering anchorage, H. M. ships will be dressed, and a Royal salute of 21 guns will be fired ; and before the *Hero* comes to an anchor, the yards of H. M. ships present will be manned, and his Royal Highness cheered. On Saturday, 18th, H. M. ships will be dressed at eight a.m., and on his Royal Highness leaving the *Hero* for the shore the yards will be manned, a Royal salute fired, and his Royal Highness cheered. A further Royal salute will be fired on the arrival of his Royal Highness at the Parliament House, when his Royal Highness' standard will be hoisted there. H. M. ships present will follow the motions of the flagship, commencing in each case when she fires her second gun."

Quebec was not only handsomely decorated but crowded with strangers, who had come from the east and the west literally by the thousands. The triumphal arches were not so numerous, but more massive, than those that were exhibited at Halifax, and many of the streets were converted into avenues of spruce. After the procession the Prince took up his quarters at the Parliament House, which was also tenanted by the British ambassador to Washington, Colonel



THE PRINCE OF WALES IN CANADA.
His Royal Highness Landing at Quebec.

Irvine, and Sir Allan McNab, her Majesty's aide-de-camp. The Prince appeared here, as he did on all State occasions, in the full uniform of a colonel in the army, but not as colonel of the 100th or Canadian Regiment, as is generally imagined—wearing the Orders of the Garter and the Bath.

Here, as at almost every stopping place throughout the tour, the Prince had to submit to the ordeal of receiving an address and replying to the same. Some people are inclined to scoff at the presentation of addresses to distinguished visitors. For our part we hope that the practice will not be discontinued. The address at Quebec was of special importance, from the number and importance of those in whose presence it was delivered. In the pavilion in which it was delivered were gathered the Mayor of Quebec, attired in silken robes, with his Council in full evening dress; the Cabinet Ministers of Canada in their new uniform; the Anglican Bishop of Quebec, Right Rev. Dr. Mountain, with his chaplain, secretary, and some of his other clergy, in their gowns; the Roman Catholic Hierarchy, including the Archbishop (represented by proxy on account of illness), with the Bishops of Montreal, Ottawa, Kingston, Hamilton and other places, all being dressed in episcopal purple soutans and cloaks, and bearing heavy gold crucifixes and other symbols of their office.

The Address was read as follows:

MAY IT PLEASE YOUR ROYAL HIGHNESS,—

The Mayor, Councillors, and Citizens of Quebec are happy on being the first among the Canadian subjects of her Most Gracious Majesty the Queen to present their respectful homage to your Royal Highness.

They will long continue to regard as a memorable epoch the day on which they have been permitted to receive within the walls of their city this visit from the eldest son of their beloved Sovereign, the Heir Apparent to the British Crown.

When we became aware that her Majesty, finding it inconvenient or impracticable to proceed to so great a distance from the central seat of government, had deigned to testify the regard which her Majesty entertains towards her Canadian subjects by sending our future Sovereign in her stead, we felt grateful and proud in receiving such a mark of distinction from one whose public and private virtues command the admiration of the whole world.

We feel assured that our Most Gracious Queen was desirous to show by that act of condescension that she knows how to appreciate and honor, in an especial manner, the most important of her colonial possessions.

In this Province your Royal Highness will find a free people, faithful and loyal, attached to their Sovereign and their country. In this the most ancient city of Canada your Royal Highness will be in the midst of a population devoted to your interests, testifying by the heartiness of their acclamations and good wishes that though they derive their origin from various races, and may differ in language and religious denominations, yet they have but one voice and one heart in expressing loyalty to their Sovereign, and in welcoming him who represents her on this occasion, and who is one day destined, according to the natural order of events, to become her successor.

The people of Quebec rejoice in beholding your Royal Highness in the midst of them; they are happy because they have the opportunity of expressing in a direct manner their respect and attachment. Happy, because he who will hereafter, in all human probability, wear the crown of this great empire will be enabled during his brief sojourn in Canada, to judge for himself of the loyalty of the whole Canadian people in general, and of the citizens of Quebec in particular.

Your Royal Highness will also enjoy the opportunity of forming an adequate opinion of the extent of the country, its productions, its resources, its progress and the great future reserved for it, and will be enabled to perceive that Canada, with a population of three millions of inhabitants, though only an appendage of the United Kingdom, possesses institutions as free, and a territory three times as extensive.

In conclusion we entreat your Royal Highness favorably to accept for our most gracious Sovereign and yourself, along with our loyal and respectful homage, the assurance of our sincere attachment, with the most fervent wish that this visit to Canada may prove as gratifying and agreeable to yourself as it is to the citizens of Quebec.

(Signed) HECTOR L. LANGEVIN,
Mayor.

Montreal was reached on Saturday, the 25th of August. There was the usual address of welcome, followed by the usual procession.

In the Bonaventure Market every foothold had its row of tenants. The street was, nevertheless, well kept by lines of Militia, and the National and other societies, who afterwards doubled in, and formed the procession under the direction of their mounted marshals. All along the many streets through which the Prince passed there were similar crowds, while each of them was roofed in by

flags, hung from lines stretching across. From some of these ropes two crowns, and huge bouquets were pendant just above the head of his Royal Highness as he passed.

There were three arches besides the one under which the landing took place. These—one of Corinthian, one of Elizabethan, and one of nondescript design—assumed the proportions and had the effect of permanent structures. The arches, as well as many houses along the route, were covered with loyal mottoes and words of welcome.

At the Place d'Armes and Commissioners' Square fountains were playing, that in the latter forming a beautiful Prince of Wales' plume.

The Prince formally opened the Exhibition of Arts and Manufactures amid great enthusiasm. At the conclusion of this interesting ceremony the whole party drove to the Point St. Charles station, to witness the ceremony by his Royal Highness of the inauguration of the great Victoria bridge. The company being



assembled on the platform, which was covered with scarlet cloth, the Prince was received by Mr. Hodges, the builder of the bridge, who, as soon as the Royal party were grouped around, handed him a silver trowel wherewith to spread the mortar. His Royal Highness did this in a workmanlike manner, and then the stone, which hung suspended from a derrick, and measured ten-and-a-half feet by two feet, by three feet four inches, was gently lowered to its resting-place; the Prince then gave it three raps with a mallet, and this part of the ceremony was complete.

Looking over the lowered stone the enormous length of the bridge was visible shining in the sunlight, and above it was a richly draped, golden-fringed arch, with the appropriate inscription—" *Finis coronat opus.*"

The Prince then descended and took his seat along with a numerous body of officials in a beautiful car built specially for the purpose, open all around, its roof

supported simply by wooden pillars. The engine screamed, and the party were driven to the centre of the two mile tube, where they got out, and the Prince placed the last rivet of the bridge in its place, which was at once hammered in by a chosen body of mechanics. Then they got on board again and went completely through the tube, and returned to luncheon in the great car shed at Point St. Charles.

We give a reproduction of the medal struck in honor of this event.



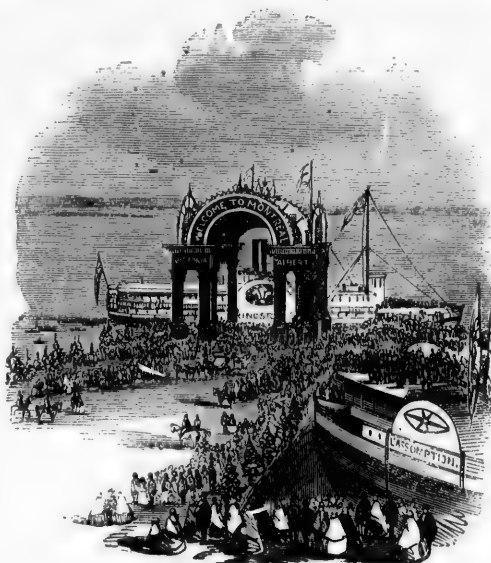
At the luncheon it was remarked that the company comprised all ranks and orders of British society, viz.:

H. R. H. (the Prince.)	Knight (Sir E. Taché.)
Duke (Newcastle.)	Metropolitan (Dr. Fulford.)
Marquis (Chandos.)	Bishop (of Huron.)
Earl (Mulgrave.)	Admiral (Milne.)
Viscount (Hinchinbrook.)	Commodore (Seymour.)
Baron (Lyons.)	Captain (Vansittart.)
Baronet (Sir Allan MacNab.)	Generals (Williams and Bruce.)

Besides divers Colonels, Majors, Captains and Esquires.

The display in Great St. James street, where the principal banks were, surpassed anything ever seen on this continent. Some of the visitors said it was even finer than that at Berlin when the Princess Royal went thither after her marriage. The Prince drove into town to see it, *incog.*, but was stopped by a policeman, as no carriages were allowed on the principal streets. General Williams, who accompanied him, had to mention his name before the carriage was allowed to proceed, and the *incog.*, being thus destroyed, a vast concourse of people began to cheer.

A very pleasant incident occurred in Montreal, in which his Royal Highness figured. A very fine company of Fusiliers came from Boston to pay their respects to the Prince. They reached Montreal on Thursday night, about ten o'clock, accompanied by their splendid band, and proceeded to the house of General Williams, where they serenaded the Prince. They played "God Save the Queen" in capital style, and brought the Prince out to the balcony. He thanked them for their kindness, hoped to meet them again in Boston, complimented them upon their soldier-like appearance (compliments as well deserved as ever men received), and concluded by asking, as a personal favor, that they would play "Yankee Doodle." Of course they obliged his Royal Highness, and were exceedingly pleased with the request. The Fusiliers were so pleased at their reception that they swore they were ready to defend the Prince against all comers, at the risk of their lives. The Canadians were much pleased at the compliment the Fusiliers have paid the whole of



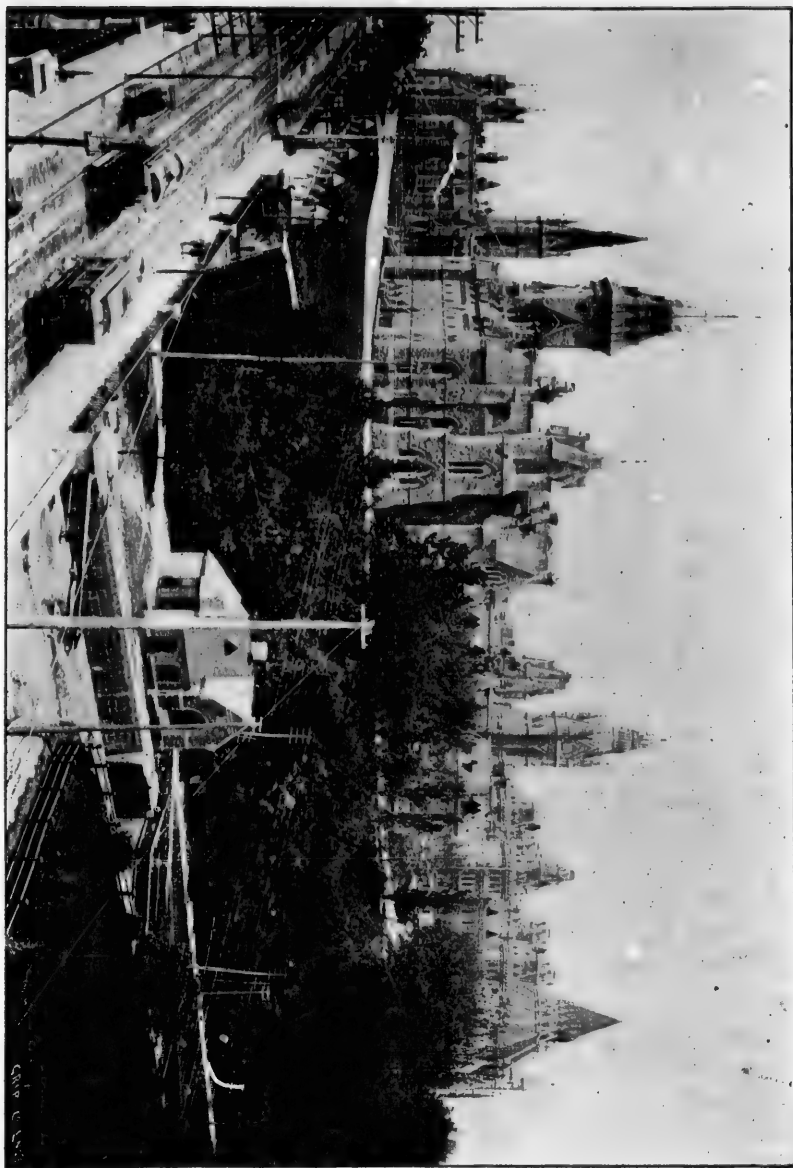
THE PRINCE OF WALES IN CANADA.
The Prince Landing at Montreal.

Canada in visiting Montreal to do honor to the Prince.

On the 1st of September H. R. H. laid the first stone of the new Parliament Buildings at Ottawa.

Everything being in readiness, the Prince and chief members of the suite advanced to the stone. It was of beautiful white Canadian marble, or crystalized limestone, brought from Portage Du Fort. On it was the simple inscription: "This corner-stone of the building, intended to receive the Legislature of Canada, was laid by Albert Edward, Prince of Wales, on the 1st day of September, 1860."

PARLIAMENT BUILDINGS, OTTAWA.



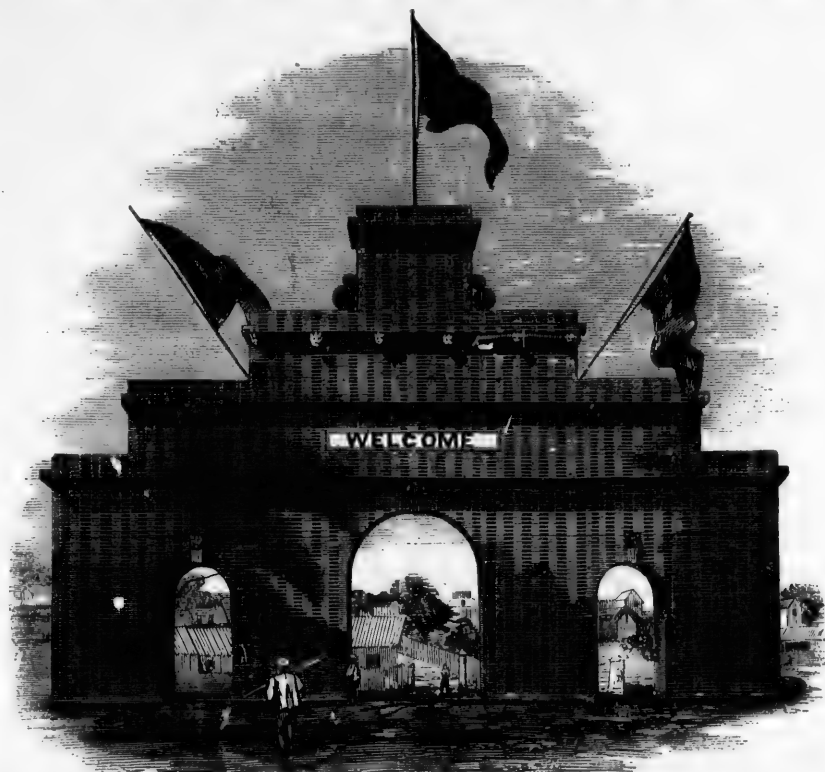
It was suspended from the centre of a great crown by a pully running round a gilded block ; under it was a similar cube of the white Nepean limestone with which the future building is to be faced, within a cavity in which was placed a glass bottle. In the bottle was a parchment scroll inscribed thus : "The foundation stone of the Houses of Parliament in the Province of Canada was laid on the 1st day of September, in the year of our Lord 1860, in the 24th year of her Majesty's reign, at the city of Ottawa, by his Royal Highness the Prince of Wales." Upon the scroll also were inscribed the names of all the members of the Legislative Council, the names of all the members of the Legislative Assembly, the names of all the members of the Government of Canada, the names of the architects, contractors, etc. There was also placed in the bottle a collection of coins of Great Britain and of Canada, gold, silver and copper. His Royal Highness gave the finishing touch to the spreading of the mortar with a silver trowel.

Then the stone was slowly lowered—the Prince gave it three raps with a mallet, and the Rev. Dr. Adamson read a prayer : "This corner-stone we lay in the name of the Father, and of the Son and of the Holy Ghost ; and may God Almighty grant that the building thus begun in His name may be happily carried on to its complete termination without injury or accident ; and that, when completed, it may be used for the good of the Province, the glory of our Queen, the happiness of our Prince, and the good government of the people. Amen."

Shortly after this ceremony the Royal party took horse and rode, in plain clothes, to the Chaudiere, where they admired the Suspension Bridge and the beautiful arch of the lumberers, containing no less than 19,000 feet of deal boards, which formed a portal to it.

A novel and exciting experience was now undergone. Dismounting, the whole of the party walked along a boom to a crib which was moored at the entrance of the timber slide. A slide, it should be explained, is an incline plane, with several feet of water rushing over it, forming a water-way down which the crib can pass without damage. A crib consists of sticks of timber of any length, forming a small raft twenty-five feet wide ; the longitudinal sticks have pieces across them to tie them, as it were, together. The crib, when fairly launched, goes down the slide with great velocity, the water rushing over the forward part and sometimes dashing over the men upon it. On each side of the slide on this occasion were thousands of people, and the numerous bridges which crossed it were alive with human beings. When the Royal crib got under way and shot down past

or below them, these people cheered and waved their handkerchiefs, and the most intense excitement prevailed. Although there is really little danger, yet accidents sometimes happen, and in every case the passengers who try this mode of locomotion for the first time have to brace their nerves and clench their lips and stand firm, lest the vibration and the shocks which the crib always receives



THE PRINCE OF WALES IN CANADA,
The Arch at Ottawa, erected by the Lumberers.

should make them lose their footing. When Albert Edward, Prince of Wales, was to undergo this experience, how much greater than usual was the interest taken in the running of the crib. Everything luckily went well, both with the Prince's raft and with that which was carrying the members of the

press immediately following. The whole of both parties were delighted with the rapid descent; the cribs floated into the centre of the bay at the foot of the Chaudiere, and there they found themselves surrounded by a hundred birch canoes, manned by lumberers in scarlet shirts and white trousers.

Before leaving Ottawa a meeting of members of Parliament was held, which was numerously attended. The Hon. George Brown was voted into the chair, and Mr. Tassé acted as secretary. A motion moved by Mr. Donald McDonald and seconded by Mr. Daost, was unanimously carried: "That the thanks of the members of the Legislature be given to the Mayor and Corporation of the City of Ottawa, for their courteous attention during the visit of the Prince of Wales to the future capital of Canada."

On the 4th inst. Kingston was reached. Here the first unpleasant incident of the tour occurred. Kingston was an Orange stronghold. It was understood that those in charge of the Prince would not permit him to land if the Orangemen, as a body, were to take part in the reception. The Orangemen refused to give way. The Duke of Newcastle, who had charge of the Prince, was equally firm, and the Prince was not allowed to leave the steamer. On the 5th it was decided to receive the local addresses on board the steamer. The Kingstonians were indignant. Mr. Engleheart tells us: "None, however, had the courage to brave the wrath of the Orangemen except the magistrates and the Presbyterian Synod."

On the 6th inst. the party reached Belleville. Here the Kingston unpleasantness was repeated. Orangemen flocked in from surrounding points. The Duke stood by his declaration that the Prince should not land in any place where there were party demonstrations.

The Mayor then made a proposition to the Duke that the Prince should land on the wharf and receive addresses from such of the citizens as chose to appear there without party decorations. His Worship said he would issue a proclamation calling upon all loyal citizens to wait upon his Royal Highness. The compromise was refused.

The disappointment of the people of Belleville was intense. In no place which the Prince had yet visited, of equal size, had decorations been so numerous or in such excellent taste. Ten arches had been erected, all of a very large size, richly ornamented with garlands of flowers and banners, contributed principally by the ladies of the town, who had been working night and day together. There was

scarcely a house which was not ornamented. There was much disappointment and disgust also on the part of the Prince and of fifty young ladies on horseback who had come prepared to form an Amazonian guard to H. R. H.

The seventh day of September, 1860, will long be cherished as the brightest day in the annals of the City of Toronto. The Prince arrived in the harbor, on the *Kingston*, late in the afternoon of that day. As the boat reached the wharf a sailor, dressed in naval style, threw the landing rope, the gangway was



THE PRINCE OF WALES IN CANADA.
The Procession in McGill Street, Montreal.

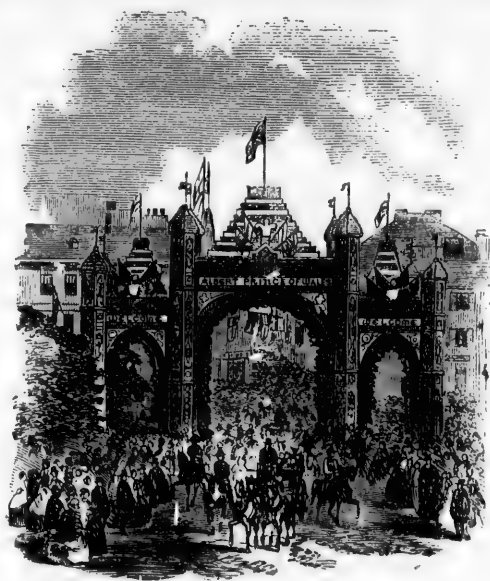
pushed out, the Prince stepped quickly ashore, surrounded by his staff, and accompanied by the Mayor. A vast multitude had gathered to greet the Prince. Shouts of applause rang out. These were taken up again and again as the Prince appeared, the ladies waving their handkerchiefs and the gentlemen their hats, in uncontrolled enthusiasm. A procession through many of the principal streets followed. Magnificent arches spanned the streets. The Prince had an excellent opportunity of seeing the extent of the preparations made for his welcome. He had, also, a favorable view of King Street, with its arches, gaslights, transparen-

cies, windows filled with ladies and children, waving handkerchiefs and cheering the Prince, gentlemen vociferating, setting off rockets and Roman candles, and making as great a commotion as their means allowed. Every window was occupied, every foot of standing ground was covered with pedestrians. Men rushed beneath the feet of the horses of the escort to get a glimpse of the Prince.

In Toronto the friction over Orangemen and Orange banners quickly reasserted itself. His Grace the Duke of Newcastle, whether of his own volition or on account of orders from his superiors, had determined that Orangemen and their famous picture of William crossing the Boyne on his fiery white charger, should be tabooed. So far as the Duke was concerned he would use his power to the utmost extent to prevent the young Prince from publicly meeting such people or gazing on such a picture. Accordingly the Mayor of Toronto was required to give an assurance that a picture of King William, which the Duke had heard was exposed upon an Orange arch, had been removed. At this distance of time it is quite amusing to read what the private secretary of the Duke wrote: "As we drove to Government House we found the town profusely decorated, and among the numerous arches which spanned the main street there presented itself, in direct violation of the Mayor's promise and assurance, a transparency of William III. crossing the Boyne. The foremost horses of the Prince's carriage were already under the arch before the Duke perceived it." This, of course, would never do. The Duke sent for the Mayor and demanded explanations. The Mayor ultimately apologised.

On Saturday a levee was held at Government House, at which a great number of citizens were presented. The formalities of the levee were the same as those generally observed. The Prince stood in the centre of a semicircle formed by the members of his suite, consisting of his Grace the Duke of Newcastle; Earl St. Germain; Sir Allan McNab; his Excellency the Earl of Mulgrave, Governor of Nova Scotia; Lord Lyons, British Ambassador at Washington; Commodore Seymour, of the *Hero*; General Sir W. Fenwick Williams; Sir Edmund Head; the Bishop of Toronto and Bishop Lynch. Before entering, the card was presented to the first equerry, passed by him to the second, who read the name to the Chief Steward, who in his turn read it to his Royal Highness. Both Prince and subject then bowed, indulged in a little mutual admiration—and the ordeal passed.

On Sunday morning the Prince attended the St. James' Cathedral at the eleven o'clock service. But the picture of the long dead and gone King William continued to worry the Royal party. It appears that on the way to church they avoided the main street and the Orange arch which adjoined the church. This enraged some Orange partisans, and during divine service they surrounded King William with more banners. They even flaunted the Union Jack in the Prince's face as he left the Cathedral. There was some sug-



THE PRINCE OF WALES IN CANADA.

The Procession in the Place D'Armes, Montreal.

gestion, too, of taking the horses out and dragging the carriage under the arch. That, however, ended in talk; and after considerable crowding the Prince got away. Scandalized by such conduct, the Duke walked down to the arch in the afternoon to see and judge for himself, and incidentally to give the lie to the rumor that he dare not show his face abroad. His Grace the Duke must have left Toronto in anything but the best of spirits, as we are told he was followed by a rabble who were mean enough to hiss and jeer at him.

In Toronto, as elsewhere, a grand ball was given in honor of the Prince.

These balls were long remembered in society circles. Fanny Fern, the American authoress, wrote about them in this sarcastic strain: "What an event among crinolinedom—to have danced with the Prince of Wales! We are afraid he will have much to answer for. Young men who were formerly considered paragons of



THE PRINCE OF WALES IN CANADA.

The Arch in Toronto, erected by the Orangemen.

perfection by these same young ladies, will doubtless be snubbed incontinently. A hand that has been grasped by a live Prince will not be bestowed on every chance comer, depend upon it. Have a care, girls! Don't carry your heads too high, or at least not so high, that you may not have the pleasure of telling your



ORONHYATEKHA

In the Indian costume which he wore when presenting the address of the
Six Nations Indians to H. R. H. the Prince of Wales,
at Brantford, 1860.

children "all about the Prince." In short, don't be so puffed up that one of these days somebody else will exclaim, incredulously, in your hearing "What! the Prince dance with *her*! Well, truly, there is no accounting for tastes!" Not the consolatory "Oh, but she was very pretty *once*" will take the sting from the rejoinder—"Is it possible?"

The remainder of the tour was a continuous triumph. At Brantford and Sarnia addresses were received from the Indians, some of whom came 400 miles to see the son of their "Great Mother." Oronhyatekha, so well-known in Canada to-day, was a student at Toronto University, when the Prince of Wales made his visit to Brantford. The chiefs of the Six Nations deputized Oronhyatekha to deliver an address to the son of the "Great Mother," as they called the Queen. The impression the young Indian made upon the Prince and royal party was so favorable that he was invited to continue his studies at Oxford, England, under the care of Sir Henry Acland, K.C.M.G., Regius Professor of Medicine. Out of this relation of teacher and pupil sprung a friendship that will likely last to the end of life.

An amusing incident occurred at Brantford. The hats of the Royal party, which had been deposited in the dressing-room before the luncheon, were found to be minus the bands. The Prince was the first to notice this. When it was found that the white hats were the only sufferers, the conclusion was at once arrived at that the Prince's enthusiastic admirers among the young ladies determined to possess themselves of some relic of him, and sorely puzzled to know which was the royal hat—four or five being white—had unbanded them all.

On the 18th inst. the Prince laid the first stone of Brock's Monument on Queenston Heights. The arrangements being completed, Sir J. B. Robinson read the following address:

To the Most High, Puissant and Illustrious Prince Albert Edward, Prince of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, Prince of Wales, Duke of Saxony, Prince of Cobourg and Gotha, Great Steward of Scotland, Duke of Cornwall and Rothesay, Earl of Chester, Carrick, and Dublin, Baron of Renfrew, and Lord of the Isles, K. G.

MAY IT PLEASE YOUR ROYAL HIGHNESS,

Some of the few survivors of the Militia Volunteers who assisted in defending Canada against the invading enemy during the last American War, have

assembled from different parts of the Province in the hope that they may be graciously permitted to offer to your Royal Highness the expression of their loyal welcome upon your arrival in this portion of her Majesty's dominions.

In the long period that has elapsed very many have gone to rest who have served in higher ranks than ourselves, and took a more conspicuous part in that glorious contest.

They would have delighted in the opportunity, which we now enjoy, of beholding in their country a descendant of the just and pious Sovereign in whose cause they and their followers fought, and whom they were from infancy taught to revere for her many public and private virtues.

We feel deeply grateful to her Majesty, whose condescension to the wishes of her Canadian subjects has conferred on us the honor of a visit from your Royal Highness; and we rejoice in the thought that what your Royal Highness has seen and will see, of this prosperous and happy Province, will enable you to judge how valuable a possession was saved to the British Crown by the successful resistance made in the trying contest in which it was our fortune to bear a part—and your Royal Highness will then be able to judge how large a debt the Empire owed to the lamented hero Brock, whose gallant and generous heart shrank not in the darkest hour of the conflict from the most discouraging odds, and whose escapes inspired the few with the ability and spirit to do the work of many.

We pray God will bless your Royal Highness with many years of health and happiness, and may lead you by His providence to walk in the paths of our revered and beloved Queen, to whom the world looks up as an example of all the virtues that can dignify the highest rank, support worthily the responsibilities of the most anxious station, and promote the peace, security and happiness of private life.

His Royal Highness made a gracious and very sensible reply.

At the conclusion of the reply, his Royal Highness was conducted by Sir John B. Robinson to the monument itself. He ascended to the top, and from thence enjoyed the magnificent view which stretches far and wide below—a scene, perhaps, unrivalled in the Province. From thence he proceeded to the foot of the hill to the spot where General Brock fell. Here a square stone pedestal four feet square had been placed upon a grassy bank three feet six inches high. Suspended by ropes and pulleys over the pedestal was a stone obelisk, four feet

three inches high, and weighing about three and a half tons. On one side was the following inscription :

"Near this spot Major-General Sir Isaac Brock, K.C.B., Provisional Lieutenant-Governor of Upper Canada, fell on the 13th of October, 1812, while advancing to repel the invading enemy."

On the opposite were the words :

"This stone was laid by His Royal Highness Albert Edward, Prince of Wales, on the 18th September, 1860."

Hamilton was reached at 5 o'clock in the afternoon. Two private houses beautifully situated in quiet grounds were proffered to the Prince and his suite. The Duke's secretary adds, "the most pleasant domicile we had in Canada."

Hamilton gave the Prince a right royal welcome. There was the regulation address presented, followed by the procession, with fire works in the evening.

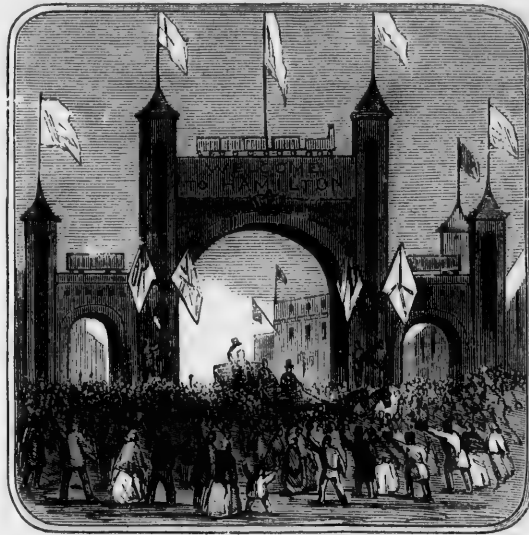
The first public act performed by his Royal Highness the Prince of Wales was to visit the Central School. Twelve hundred children sat awaiting his arrival, all wrought up to the highest pitch of excitement at the prospect of seeing him. The Prince passed through the different class-rooms, in which were assembled the children. The boys' department was first visited, and then came the turn of the girls. Sir Edmund Head actually tried to convince the Prince that there was not time to look at the girls! But Albert Edward, P. (as he signed himself in the visitors' book), could not understand the force of the argument at all. If Sir Edmund was in a hurry, why did he not take the Prince through the girls' department first, and let the boys wait till he paid another visit to Hamilton? There would have been some sort of sense in such an arrangement, but there was none in the one proposed. So the Prince visited the girls' rooms as well as the boys' rooms.

The Prince afterwards visited the Exhibition, and later in the day was the leading figure in a most important function—the inauguration of the Hamilton Water Works.

The point that particularly struck the visitors at the close of the tour was the extraordinary devotion and attachment to the Queen, and for her sake, of enthusiastic admiration of the Prince, which was evinced everywhere throughout his progress.

The Prince made a short tour of the United States, visiting the principal cities, and receiving everywhere a most enthusiastic reception. When in New York

the Royal party attended Trinity Church. During the course of the sermon the minister invoked the blessing of God upon the Queen, the Prince and the Royal Family. The incident was curious on account of what had taken place in the very same church during the revolutionary war. Shortly after New York was occupied by Washington's army, Mr. Inglis, the acting minister, and afterwards Bishop of Nova Scotia, received orders to forbear saying prayers for the King and Queen. Mr. Inglis continued to pray as usual. Then the church was filled with soldiers, but with no better effect on the loyal parson, who was not to be daunted by the presence of the military.



THE PRINCE AT HAMILTON.
Great Western Railway Mechanics' Arch.

By the 20th of October, the British man-of-war *Hero* with others of the British fleet had arrived at Portland, Maine, and here the Prince embarked for England. By a strange coincidence the British squadron arrived at Portland on the very day, almost the very hour, on and at which, just 85 years before, a British fleet of six sail entered the harbor with orders to burn, sink and destroy, and did destroy the town, the citizens of which now gave a hearty welcome to the Prince, and who parted from him with enthusiastic cheering as he left their shores on his way to the *Hero*.

On the 20th of November, 1871, the Prince of Wales was seized with typhoid fever. The national anxiety was intense. The daily bulletins were eagerly scanned. The Princess Alice, who had acquired great technical skill in the war hospitals, installed herself as nurse-in-chief. The Queen, though suffering from recent sickness, took her place at her son's bedside, to watch, with a sinking heart, the progress of the malady that had robbed her of her husband. From every portion of her vast Empire prayers ascended for the Prince. As the anniversary of the Prince Consort's death approached the heart of the nation almost stood still. On the 13th of December the patient was rapidly sinking. The physicians in attendance warned the Queen that the inevitable end was near.

On the 14th, the day ten years before fatal to his father, the Prince rallied. A fortnight later official announcement was made that he was out of danger and on the high road to complete recovery. A sigh of relief and gratitude went up from all hearts. Her Majesty, who had felt deeply the nation's sympathy, caused the following letter to be published :

"The Queen is very anxious to express her deep sense of the touching sympathy of the whole nation on the occasion of the alarming illness of her dear son, the Prince of Wales. The universal feeling shown by her people during these painful, terrible days, and the sympathy evinced by them with herself and her beloved daughter, the Princess of Wales, as well as the general joy at the improvement in the Prince of Wales' state, have made a deep and lasting impression on her heart which never can be effaced. It was, indeed, nothing new to her, for the Queen had met with the same sympathy when, just ten years ago, a similar illness removed from her side the mainstay of her life—the best, wisest and kindest of husbands. The Queen wishes to express, at the same time, on the part of the Princess of Wales, her feelings of heartfelt gratitude, for she has been as deeply touched as the Queen by the great and universal manifestations of loyalty and sympathy. The Queen cannot conclude without expressing her hope that her faithful subjects will continue their prayers to God for the complete recovery of her dear son to health and strength."

On the 27th of February, 1872, her Majesty proceeded in state to St. Paul's Cathedral to return thanks for her son's recovery. The day was observed as a national festival. The people who had shared her anxiety were as eager to share her joy. The streets were lined with glad spectators. Costly decorations everywhere met the eye. The approach of the Royal carriage, bearing the Queen, the

Prince and the Princess of Wales, was hailed with tempestuous shouts of loyal welcome. The Queen looked supremely happy: the Prince, though pale and wasted, beamed with joy.

The Cathedral was crowded; the service was a special one, appropriate to the occasion; the sermon, by the Archbishop of Canterbury, from the text, "Members one of another," was brief and to the point.

At its conclusion, amid thunders from the Tower and Park guns, the Royal procession returned to Buckingham Palace.

Two days later the following letter appeared in all the papers:

"BUCKINGHAM PALACE, February 29, 1872.

"The Queen is anxious, as on a previous occasion, to express publicly her *own* personal *very deep* sense of the reception she and her dear children met with on Tuesday, February 27th, from millions of her subjects, on her way to and from St. Paul's. Words are too weak for the Queen to say how very deeply touched and gratified she has been by the immense enthusiasm and affection exhibited towards her dear son and herself, from the highest down to the lowest, on the long progress through the Capital; and she would earnestly wish to convey her warmest and most heartfelt thanks to the whole nation for this demonstration of loyalty. The Queen, as well as her son and her dear daughter-in law, felt that the whole nation joined with them in thanking God for sparing the beloved Prince of Wales' life. The remembrance of this day, and of the remarkable order maintained throughout, will forever be affectionately remembered by the Queen and her family.

In 1875 H. R. H. the Prince of Wales visited India. Sir Bartle Frere was chosen as being the man best fitted, for social and political reasons, to undertake the direction and management of the tour. The House of Commons voted sixty thousand pounds for the personal expenses of the Prince and his suite. Frere considered this sum utterly inadequate, on account of the great number of presents which would have to be given in return for those which would have to be received. Very many in England as well as the Indian officials agreed with Frere. Dr. Russell, the *Times* correspondent, said afterwards that the Indian visit cost the *Times* more than ten thousand pounds. However, no more money was forthcoming from the House of Commons, and Frere had to do the best he could with the money placed at his disposal. Fortunately, and largely owing to Frere's excellent management, the tour turned out a success in every way.

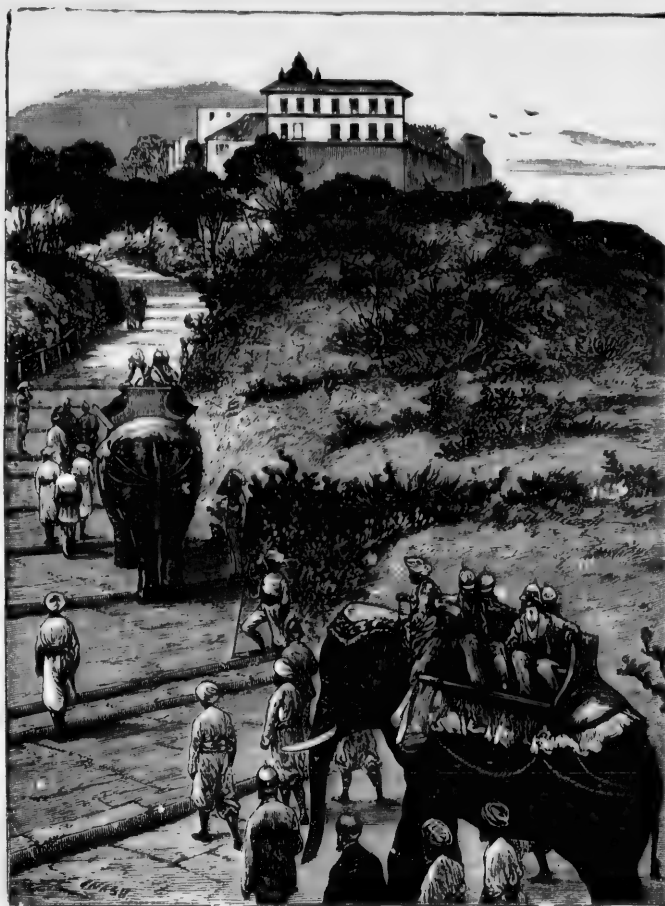
It was arranged that the newspaper correspondents should always go ahead of the Prince and wait his arrival at the next stopping-place. But this did not suit one enterprising young man, who wished always to be present at the departures, as it was *certain*, he said, that attempts would be made to assassinate the Prince, and these attempts would be made as he was leaving some place.

Lord Mayo's assassination was still fresh in the people's memory, and a good deal of not altogether unreasonable anxiety was expressed as to the Prince's safety. But, happily, he returned safely home.

Great interest was taken throughout the United Kingdom in the proposed tour. Some Sunday observance faddists proposed to indulge in the harmless pastime of worrying the Government with addresses and petitions praying that Sunday might be properly observed on the Prince's tour. But they were assured that this matter had already been carefully considered.

The Prince left Dover on the 11th of October, 1875, crossed to Calais, and travelled overland to Brindisi. Here the Prince and his party boarded the troop-ship, *Serapis*, which left Brindisi on the 16th inst. Passing through the Suez Canal, the Khedive of Egypt was visited at Cairo, honors were conferred on friendly chiefs at Aden, and Bombay was reached on the 8th of November.

Bombay had been selected as the place where the Prince was first to touch Indian soil. The Viceroy, the Governor, and a great concourse of Europeans and natives were assembled to meet him. The natives, in their different ways and according to their myriad superstitions, looked to his advent, some with hope and affection, most with intense satisfaction, and all with an indescribable amount of awe which fascinates and attracts them in a way only those can realize who have mingled with them. The Prince's tact and kindly, gracious manner, deeply impressed the generally unimpressionable native chiefs, and he speedily became a great favorite. The tour was not by any means one of pleasure only for the Prince. He was kept busy from morning till evening, day after day, attending durbars, banquets, balls, picnics and other festivities. Ceylon, Madras, Calcutta were each in turn visited. From Calcutta, the Prince and his party went to Benares, Lucknow and Cawnpore; thence to Delhi, the Imperial City of India, as it is called. Here a camp of exercise had been formed, containing a large body of troops, European and native, and manœuvres or reviews took place daily. "The marks of approbation and regard," wrote Lord Napier of Magdala, "which the Prince of Wales has shown towards the native army, are, politically, of the greatest value, and have surprised and delighted it."



ELEPHANT RIDING IN INDIA.
The Journey of the Prince of Wales and Suite.

On the 12th of January a grand review was held at Delhi. Mr. W. H. Russell says: "As the Prince appeared on the ground, the Royal Standard was hoisted and a Royal salute given along the line; the great crowd uttered a shout of welcome, and the fluttering of white kerchiefs from the dense line of carriages seemed like a ripple of surf against the background of the dark multitude. The Prince rode across to the right of the first line, and down the front, receiving the usual honors, bands playing, colors lowered, and so on, passing from right to left and left to right till the inspection was complete. That was a pretty sight, scarcely marred by the dust that would rise to obscure for a moment the brightness of the cavalcade in which might be recognized the plumed pickel-haubes of Count Seckendorff and two or three Germans, the simple uniform of three American officers, the aigrettes of the Nepalese and the jewelled turbans of Native Chiefs, amid the uniforms of the officers of all branches of the two arms of the Crown in India. When his Royal Highness had taken up his place near the flagstaff in front of the Royal enclosure, the march-past commenced. His Royal Highness was in front, so that he could be seen by all; Lord Napier of Magdala, his arm in a sling, was on his left; Scindia was at a little distance on his right, somewhat in the rear, with two or three chiefs. The Duke of Sutherland, Lord Keane (*en bourgeois*), Colonel Dillon, Mr. Knollys, &c., were on horseback in the Royal enclosure, but the military members and officers of yeomanry or militia of the suite were massed at the other side nearly opposite the saluting-point. When the signal was given the first line began to move, and for an hour and a half the stream of horse, foot, and guns flowed before us."

From Delhi the party proceeded to Lahore. Before leaving Delhi, rumors were abroad that an attempt would be made to wreck the Prince's train as it passed at night. As a precaution, therefore, men with torches were stationed at intervals of fifty yards over the whole distance of three hundred miles to Lahore. But no attempt at violence was made, either there or elsewhere. At length the tour was at an end, and the party had returned to Bombay.

The Prince left Bombay in the *Serapis*, on the return trip, on the 13th of March, 1876, having travelled nearly 7,600 miles by land and 2,300 miles by sea. On the way home the Prince visited Spain and Portugal. Portsmouth was reached on the 11th of May. The scene at the landing at Portsmouth was a becoming prelude to the greeting which the whole country gave the Prince on his return from the visit to India, which will be for generations a great landmark in the history of the Empire.

It was recognized that the tour had been successful beyond all expectation. A public thanksgiving service for the Prince's safe return was held at Westminster Abbey, Dean Stanley preaching the sermon. Sir Bartle Frere was warmly congratulated on the important service he had rendered in piloting the expedition. As a reward for his services the Queen bestowed on him a baronetage, and also made him a G. C. B.

The following extracts from the native press of India will be read with interest. They allow us to estimate the depth of the impression made by the visit of his Royal Highness :

From the *Vedanta Nirnaya* (a Tamil newspaper.)

"The steamer *Serapis* was in sight at the Port of Bombay on the 8th ultimo. Three guns were fired to denote the arrival of the Prince. All the people of the city, who were expecting since a month, rejoiced exceedingly. A salute of twenty-one guns was fired solemnly from the men-of-war. The rays of the morning sun appeared on the waters of the sea, and shone like golden beams. In all the ships in the Roads colors and flags were hoisted. At which time males and females came in dense crowds to the sea-shore, and were quite taken up by the scene, where there was a great clamor of ships borne by the hands of the sea maidens. Then, about half-past 4 o'clock in the afternoon, Lord Northbrook, the Governor-General of India, and Sir Philip Wodehouse, the Governor of Bombay, together with the chief officials, went up to the *Serapis*, and visited the Prince with respect; after which the Prince, attended by the above nobles, landed from the *Serapis*, and, walking gently, got up in the middle of an embellished building near the beach. There were high seats prepared on each side, so as to contain nearly five hundred persons. In the main road were spread superior carpets. Near that building stood the Regiment of European Fusiliers in parade, and paid the due honors. The band played 'God save the Queen.' Immediately her Royal son, standing in the midst of the assembly, advanced two feet forward, when an Address, prepared by the Committee of the City Decoration, was read by Dada Bahee Baheramjee, which was then put into a fine covered case, and was presented into the hands of our Queen's son. To which the Prince replied properly. Again the Shahzadab, i.e., Prince, had interviews with every native King with much pleasure, and, when he was going in his Royal carriage towards the Government House, Parsee maids, well dressed, met him in the road, and poured

showers of flowers at his feet, and sprinkled odorous scents. Being struck with astonishment, the Prince halted awhile, stooped his head, and paid them his respects. And then, going along in procession through the decorated streets, he was dropped at the Government House. He went, after a few days, to Poonah and Baroda, in the Bombay Presidency, where also the respective inhabitants welcomed him, and he had the pleasure of witnessing many sights of wrestling and wild-beast fighting. He was much pleased with one Pilanteen, who played upon a rope, or very cleverly walked upon it, suspended by the power of steam-machine. We are now obliged to stop, as it will take too much space if we want to relate all."

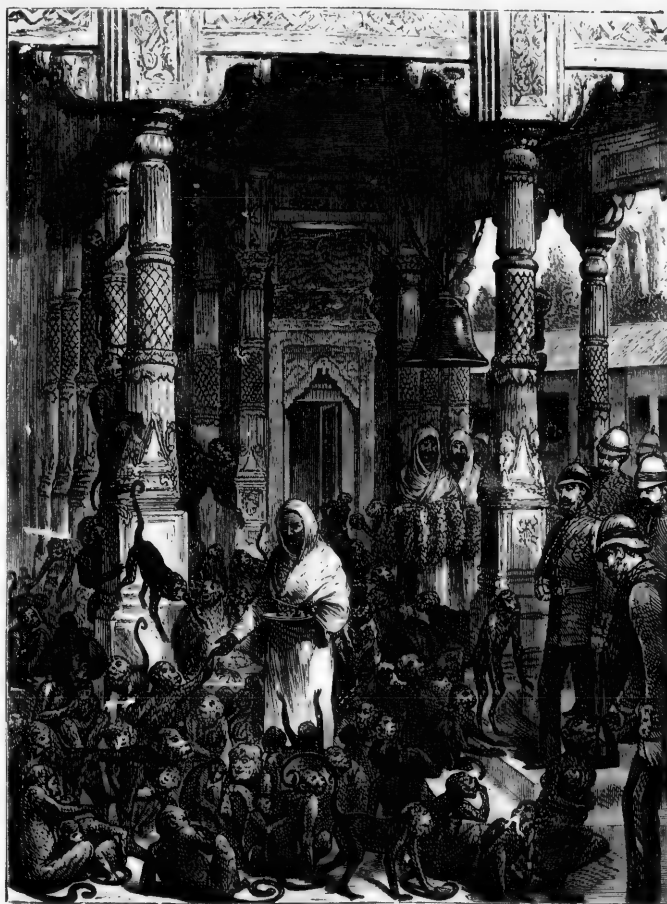
From the *Jerida-i-Rezgan* (a Telugu newspaper published at Madras.)

"His Royal Highness the Prince arrived at Madras, and the people, long expecting, now have the means of representing the pleasure attending his Royal Highness's joyful arrival. We are unable to write in his praise; he possesses a thousand merits, and we are unable to explain one-tenth of them. The people of this place were in the dark, and by the arrival of the Most Noble the Prince, the light has spread out, and his lustre is shone on them as a rising star throws his light on the earth. Praise be to (Alla) God, who has given us such a joyful day!

"For a few days Madras had the pleasure in greeting the joyful arrival in the happy town; but now our Most Noble Prince has left our shores, we see nothing but dulness and quietness. For this separation we feel very sorry. If it had been in our power, we would not have allowed him to depart."

From *Veltikodegone* (a Tamil newspaper.)

"The precious son of her Majesty the Queen, his Royal Highness the Prince of Wales, born by the blessing of the Happy One, the transcendant Holy Height, whose beginning, middle and end are incomprehensible, approached the Perambore Railway Station at 7 a.m. on Monday last, when the officers of the Railway Company, who awaited to receive him there, poured over the Prince a shower of various sorts of odorous flowers, such as lilies, rose, jessamine, lotus, and the like, sprinkled on him rose-water, attar, and other essences of odor, which were kept filled up in different trays of gold set with precious stones, paid him all possible respect, and taking hold of him by his hand (vivid as the crimson color of lotus),



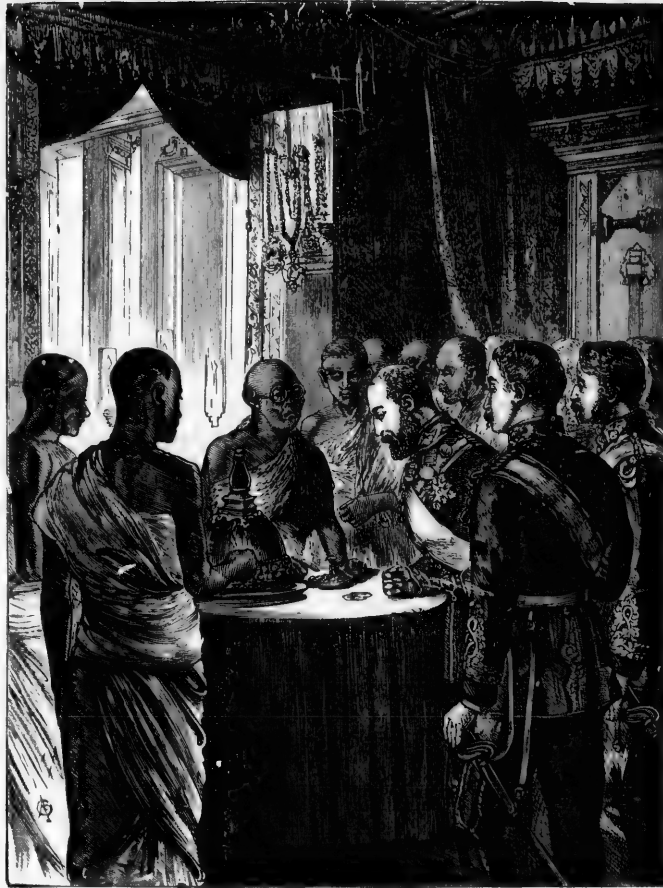
THE "PRINCE OF WALES" AT THE MONKEY TEMPLE, INDIA.

delightfully inducted him into a well-decorated apartment where the floor was covered with carpets of various colors interwoven with gold. Within about half-an-hour, after having visited the workshop and other places and having put on a Royal robe, he got into the train and approached the Roypooram Station at about a quarter-past eight. The ornamental decoration and workmanship at the Railway Station were such as to ravish the spectators' sight. His Grace (the Governor) the Duke of Buckingham, the Chief Justice of the High Court, the Protestant Bishop, the Right Rev. Dr. Fennelly, Bishop of the Roman Catholics, the Government Secretaries, and others, as well as the Native Princes and Rajahs of the five different soils, and others, having wished him a long reign, cheerfully welcomed the Prince, who in return paid them respect by raising up his hand of crimson color. By this time the military officers fired the guns. All those and every one of the spectators, who waited with inexpressible anxiety the whole previous night, with their eyes wide awake, exposing themselves to the fulgent and frigid rays of the moon, as well as the darting rays of the morning sun, fearless of the dangerous consequences of the deed, no sooner heard the report of the guns than they got up and stood with their hands folded and their mouths closed, in the fashion of Oriental loyalty usually shown to Sovereigns.

"However diffident we may feel as to our powers to express the excellent manner in which the Thumboo Chetty Street, commencing at the terminus up to the Madras Government House, was decorated, yet we shall try our best endeavors to remove that, as well as the feebleness of our pen, and describe the same as far as practicable.

"The diffidence is entirely owing to the extreme degree of our inability to the task, since the Alldishasha himself (the Seven-Hooded dragon subterranean supporter and the Divine Commentator of all the Gravamities) has gone down feeling rather too shy; as this grandeur is far above his powers of expression, he is not adequate to the task. In streets on both sides, colored flags were hoisted; artificial groves of trees, such as coca, palmyra, date and plaintains, were exhibited, so thickly that they appeared to touch the ethereal regions.

"Heroic military officers and vehicles of Hindu Kings moved on in Royal procession. To feast their eyes with the colors (flags) on the Railway building, the people, conscious of their unworthy vision or sight, attempted to perform penance for better eyes than theirs. There was a green canopy set up within the boundary limit of the Railway Terminus, and it presented a superhuman workman-



IN THE BUDDHIST TEMPLE, AT KANDY.
The Prince examining the Sacred Tooth of Gotama Buddha.

ship. On the front of each of the pandals there was an inscription of the British national anthem, 'God Save the Queen.' In the pandal there was hung an angelic relique which showered on his Royal Highness a profusion of flowers. The Prince, whose face was attractive as the moon, being pleased at this, smiled. Immediately, Ramasaumy Chettiar offered his loyal respects to the Prince, who returned his thanks. From the Fort Esplanade up to the Government House the green pandals were all so excellently beautified, like her Majesty's Windsor Castle, near that water fountain, in England, presenting a view of recreation. Orchards from Wallajah Bridge up to Monroe's statue, there were on both sides raised-up benches prepared for the students of all the schools in Madras, whose numbers defied calculation. A portion of them chanted songs of congratulations to the Prince and praises of the Deity. Then the Prince stopped his Royal vehicle a little, and with pleasure listened to melodious numbers.

"His Royal Highness observed the carefulness and watchfulness of the respective schoolmasters by the side of their students, and was indescribably satisfied with their devotional attention to their duty. The side benches prepared for the officials and other officials were not enough for their number, sores and sores of them standing under the powerful sun, unmindful of the beams of the day-maker, like the blind praying for eyes who have realized their wish; when it was quarter after nine the Prince entered into the Government House. The multitudes, expressing doubt if there was ever such a scene beheld, returned home. On that evening his Royal Highness went to the Guindy Park Government House; the following day, being the day of his late father's anniversary, the Prince kept at home at Guindy."

From the '*Oomdatool Akbar*' (Oordoo paper), 20th December.

"By the blessing of Almighty, his Royal Highness the Prince of Wales arrived at Madras, and the people of this place consider it a very fortunate day in their life. In place of showers of rain, they are pleased with showers of pleasure; the beauties of flowers of the garden and trees are in no way to be compared with the pleasures derived by the arrival of our Noble Prince. We offer our prayer to Almighty God that the Prince may arrive safely at his destination.

"After his Royal Highness had witnessed the last General Military Review near the Government House, sitting under the gold, triple-crowned umbrella, supported by the pillar set by carbuncle, diamond, crystal, cat's eye, emerald, lapis

lazuli and blue-gem, he was much transported with joy. He was again overwhelmed in the ocean of delight by the exhibition of fireworks, which laughed to scorn our Indian fireworks. The skilful European workmen, who came from England for the purpose of preparing these powder combinations, were able in the secrets and mysteries of nature to change from minute to minute, for more than three hours, the aspect of the blue sky into crimson-red, emerald-green, saffron. Scores of people were thunderstruck, and imagined that the sidereal heaven itself had been translated into the earth, and scores again uttered cries that the stars were melted and poured down. Scores put forth the opinion that



THE QUEEN AND JOHN BROWN (Her Faithful Highland Servant).

the bushy rockets dashed upwards to measure the distance between the celestial and terrestrial orbs. In like manner the fireworks exhibited on the *Serapis*, and on the Body-Guard ships, were vieing with each other. As these were observed to dive into and emerge from the sea—sight quite novel to people like ourselves—we stood with our eyes wide awake, so as not to wink even.”

In 1878, on the 17th anniversary of the Prince Consort's death, a new burden of grief was laid upon the Queen, in the death of the Princess Alice, Grand Duchess of Hesse-Darmstadt. Her husband and five of her children were taken with diphtheria. The Princess' youngest child—her “sunshine,” as she ever called

her—succumbed to the dreadful malady. For a terrible month the Princess braved the poisonous atmosphere of the sick room. What wonder that, worn with anxiety, grief and physical exertion, she was unable to resist the contagion of the disease? On December 7th she fell ill, and a week later, with the words, "Dear papa" on her lips, she passed

"To where beyond these voices there is peace."

At one time the Princess had been led away by the free-thinking philosophy current at the Court of the Grand Duke. Affliction, however, led her back to the faith of her childhood. An intimate friend and relation writes: "After her son's death I thought I observed a change in her feelings. Before that time she had often expressed openly her doubts as to the existence of God—had allowed herself to be carried away by the free-thinking, philosophical views of others. After Prince Fritz died she never spoke in that way again. She remained silent while a transformation was quietly going on within, of which I afterwards was made aware, under the influence of some hidden power. It seemed as if she did not then like to own the change that had come over her.

Some time afterwards she told me herself, in the most simple and touching manner, how this change had come about. I could not listen to her story without tears. The Princess told me she owed it all to her child's death, and to the influence of a Scotch gentleman, a friend of the Grand Duke's and the Grand Duchess', who was residing with his family at Darmstadt.

"I owe all to this kind friend," she said, "who exercised such a beneficial influence on my religious views. Yet people say so much that is cruel and unjust of him, and of my acquaintance with him." At another time she said, "The whole edifice of philosophical conclusions which I had built up for myself I find to have no foundation whatever. Nothing of it is left. It has crumbled away like dust. What should we be, what would become of us, if we had no faith — if we did not believe that there is a God that rules the world and each single one of us? I feel the necessity of prayer. I have to sing hymns with my children; and we have each our favorite hymn."

A few days before the fatal malady disclosed itself she wrote to the Queen, her mother:

". . . So many pangs and pains come, and must yet, for years to come. Still, gratitude for those left is so strong; and, indeed, resignation, entire and

complete, to a higher will. And so we all feel together and encourage each other. Life is *not* endless in this world, God be praised! There is much joy, but, oh, so much trial and pain; and as the number of those one loves increases in heaven it makes our passage easier, and *home* is there. Ever your loving child, ALICE."

The Princess, like her sisters, was British to the heart's core. The day before her death she asked that the Union Jack might be spread over her coffin, hoping "that no one in the country of her adoption would object to her wish to be borne to her rest with the old English colors above her."

On Tuesday the 17th of December, after a solemn service by the English chaplain, the remains of the beloved Princess were quietly removed from her own palace to the chapel in the Grand Ducal Castle. The next day, amidst the universal grief of high and low, the coffin was placed in the Mausoleum Rosenhöhe. Her brothers the Prince of Wales and Prince Leopold, were present.

A beautiful recumbent monument by Boehm, representing the Princess holding the Princess May in her arms, is now placed in the Mausoleum over the spot where she rests.

In the United Kingdom her death was deeply lamented. The Queen wrote to her people to thank them for the true and tender feeling they had manifested. "It was," she said, "most soothing to the Queen's feelings to see how entirely her grief was shared by her people."

Her Majesty has published three works: "A Memoir of the Prince Consort," "Leaves from the Journal of our Life in the Highlands," and "More Leaves." The "Memoir of the Prince Consort" was at first printed for private circulation only. Fear, however, of its being surreptitiously obtained and published, possibly in a garbled form; belief that the free and unreserved expression of her feelings would win general sympathy; and trust that the volume would tend to a better appreciation of the Prince's great character, induced the Queen to consent to its publication. In this her Majesty was well advised. The Memoir has not only won for the Prince's character the hearty respect of the public, it has done more; it has deepened in the hearts of all her subjects loyal admiration for the Queen herself.

The volumes of extracts from her Majesty's Journals make no pretension to literary finish. They are the unstudied records of the impressions received by the Royal author in the course of her journeys among the wild beauty of the

Highlands, or during her Majesty's progresses in England, Ireland and the Channel Islands.

Mr. Helps, under whose editorship the first volume appeared, speaks of the "picturesque descriptions of scenery in which the work abounds, the simplicity of diction throughout it, and the perfect faithfulness of narration which is one of its chief characteristics." In every page the writer describes what she thinks and feels rather than what she might be expected to think and feel.

No such record was ever given to the world before. It is, indeed, no new thing for monarchs to appear as authors; but none have dared to be so sincere. What delights us most in these extracts from the Queen's Journals is the character revealed—unconsciously revealed; a character rich in natural gifts, richer in acquired culture, richest in a heart that responds with instant sympathy to the joys or sorrows of the humblest of her subjects, of her children—for she is the mother of her people.



HOLYROOD PALACE, EDINBURGH.

CHAPTER IX.

Some Foreign Wars.

The Duke of Wellington—His Wonderful Career—His Death at Walmer Castle—The Afghanistan Campaigns of 1842 and 1879—The Abyssinian Expedition of 1868.

THE British Empire has not acquired its present commanding position without great struggles. British statesmen, British soldiers, British blue-jackets, have each contributed to ultimate success. British diplomacy has done much to place our country in the front rank of nations. British valor on land and sea has done equally as much. It may be that the arms of Great Britain have met with occasional reverses; but the victories of Nelson, of Wellington, of the many others who



HORSE GUARDS, FROM WHITEHALL.

have fought under the "Union Jack of Old England," have emphasised the fact that if now and then we suffer checks, when our affairs happen to fall into the hands of weak and incapable men, yet as soon as we put able and vigorous leaders at the head of our affairs, the energy of the Anglo-Saxon, and the power of the British Empire, overbear all resistance and infallibly conduct us to triumph and success.

The wars through which his Grace the Duke of Wellington obtained his fame were not fought in the reign of Queen Victoria; but THE DUKE, as he was universally called, was such a prominent figure in British history until his death in 1852, that any sketch of the wars of the Victorian era would be incomplete without a reference to him.

This greatest Englishman of his day was the third son of Garret, Second Earl of Mornington, and of Anne, eldest daughter of Arthur Hill, Viscount Duncannon. He was born at Dangan Castle, County Meath, Ireland, in 1769. By the death of his father, in 1781, he became dependent at an early age upon the care and the prudence of his mother, a lady of talents not unequal to the task. He was sent to Eton, from whence he was transferred, first to private tuition at Brighton, and subsequently to the military seminary of Angers, in France, where Pignerol, an engineer of high repute, was then the director. At eighteen he was an ensign in the British army. Later on he was sent to India. Here his talents soon placed him in the front rank; promotion quickly followed. Returning to England he was sent to the Peninsula. The story of his Peninsular campaigns is familiar to the world. Following up his earlier conquests there, in six weeks, with a force of barely 100,000 men, he marched six hundred miles, passed six great rivers, gained the decisive battle of Vittoria, invested two fortresses, and expelled 120,000 men from Spain. Never was a campaign briefer or more brilliant.

Wellington was fortunate in having under him brave officers and a rank and file equally as brave. A neat compliment was paid them some years after by the distinguished Frenchman, Marshal Magnan. Several persons, in the presence of the Marshal, had expressed a doubt of the efficiency of the British Army. "I was," said Magnan, "in the Peninsula in 1813 and 1814, and in eleven battles, but I never saw the back of a British soldier."

When the dissolution of Napoleon's empire compelled a new organization of France, the Duke of Wellington was promptly despatched to Paris, as the person most competent to advise and instruct the new administration. Four days only elapsed between his departure from his army and his appearance as British ambassador at the Tuilleries. Within a week again of that time he was precipitately recalled to Madrid as the only individual who, by his experience, knowledge and influence could compose the differences between the Spanish people and their Sovereign. Before six months had passed he was on his way to Vienna, as the representative of his country in the great congress of nations which was

to determine the settlement of the world. These practical testimonies to his renown throw wholly into the shade those incidental honors and decorations by which national acknowledgments are conveyed. It is almost superfluous to add that all titles and distinctions at the command of Crowns and Cabinets were



HIS GRACE THE DUKE OF WELLINGTON.

showered upon the liberator of the Peninsula. In his own country Talavera had made him a Baron and a Viscount; Ciudad Rodrigo an Earl; Salamanca a Marquess, and his final triumph a Duke. These honors had all accumulated in his absence. His successive patents were read together in a single day as he

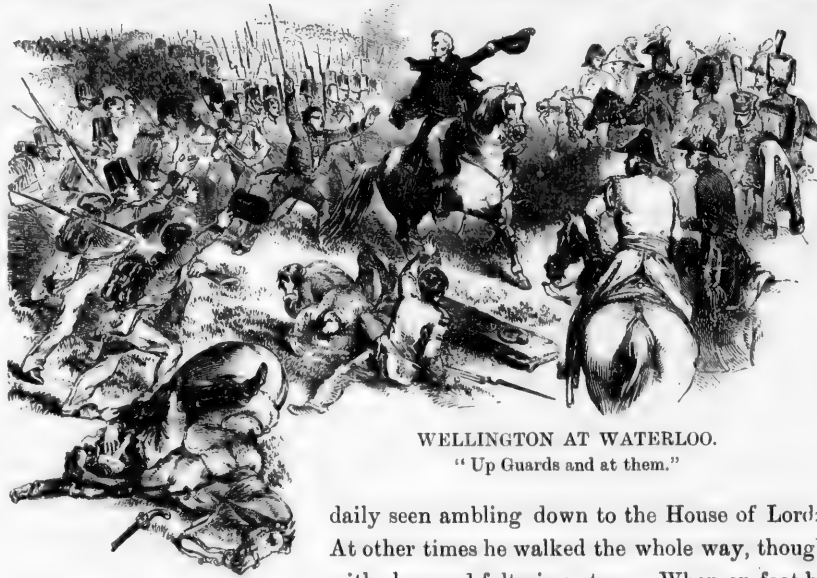
took his seat for the first time, and with the highest rank in the House of Lords, at London.

On the 10th May, 1814, the Prince Regent sent to the House of Commons a message, recommending a grant to the Duke of such an annuity as might support the high dignity of the titles conferred, and prove a lasting memorial of the nation's gratitude and munificence. On the 12th, the Speaker moved that the sum of £10,000 be annually paid out of the Consolidated Fund for the use of the Duke of Wellington, to be at any time commuted for the sum of £300,000. This sum was unanimously increased to £400,000, making in all half a million granted to his Grace.

On the 1st of July the Duke attended at the House of Commons personally to return thanks for its bounty. He entered making his obeisances, while all the members rose from their seats. The Speaker then informing him that a chair was set for his repose. He sat down in it for some time, covered, the Sergeant standing on his right hand, with the mace grounded. After the members had resumed their seats the Duke arose and made a short speech, uncovered, expressive of his gratitude to the House, not only for its liberal grant, but for having sent a deputation of members to congratulate him on his return home.

But his military services were not yet quite concluded—they were to terminate in a more brilliant, though not more substantial, triumph than had been won on the fields of Spain. While the allied sovereigns were wrangling over the trophies of their success, their terrible antagonist reappeared once more. Napoleon was again in Paris, and, aided by the devotion of his adherents, the military capacities of the nation, and a number of veteran soldiers who at the peace had been released from imprisonment, he speedily advanced at the head of an army as formidable as that of Austerlitz or Friedland. At the first rumors of the war the contingent of Britain had been entrusted to the Duke of Wellington, who occupied in Belgium the post of honor and peril. Of all the mighty reinforcements announced, none but a Prussian corps was at hand when, without warning given, the French Emperor fell headlong on his enemies at Ligny and Quatre Bras. Wellington's motley force comprised only 33,000 British, and of these only a portion was contributed by the old regiments of the Peninsula. Nevertheless, with these in the front line, and with Brunswickers, Belgians, Dutch, and Germans in support, the British General waited the impetuous onset of Napoleon, and at length won that crowning victory of Waterloo.

The private life of the Duke was simple and methodical. His attendance at each service at the Chapel Royal and at Whitehall sermons, his walk in the park in former years, and in later times his ride to the Horse Guards, or the House of Lords, with his servant behind him, are incidents which every newspaper long chronicled for the information of the country. His personal habits were of the most temperate character, bordering on the abstemious. He was, to the last, an early riser, and always slept on a hard mattress on a camp bed. He preferred horse exercise to the luxury of a carriage, and, even when the advancing infirmities of age rendered it difficult for him to sit erect upon horseback, he was still



WELLINGTON AT WATERLOO.

"Up Guards and at them."

daily seen ambling down to the House of Lords. At other times he walked the whole way, though with slow and faltering steps. When on foot he was generally without attendants. His military salute was ever ready to return the marks of respect shown him as he went along.

Although at one time he was so intensely unpopular as to be hooted through Piccadilly, and to necessitate having the windows of his residence protected by casings of iron against his own countrymen, yet for many, many years he was worshipped as a hero.

Mr. Boyle, afterwards Dean of Salisbury, relates what he calls a great piece of good luck. Lady Shelley, who was on intimate terms with the Duke, and who had attended the opera, asked young Boyle to go and see if the Duke's car-

riage was waiting. He found that it was, and received from the Duke, "Thank 'ee, sir." "What a lucky beggar you are," was the exclamation of a Charterhouse friend to whom I told my adventure with high glee, "to have had three words from the Great Duke." At another time the Dean was admiring a fine head of Napoleon, when the Duke came along and asked who it was by, adding, "I never saw him but at a distance." That occasion was at Waterloo when Napoleon was surrounded by his staff.

"Copenhagen," the Duke's favorite horse, has shared a portion of his owner's fame, and will long live on canvas, in brass, and in marble, as the bearer of the "hero of a hundred fights" on the deathful day of Waterloo. "Copenhagen" died in peaceful retirement, in 1836, at Strathfieldsaye, at the advanced equine age of twenty-eight years.

The most intimate relations always existed between her Majesty and the members of the Royal Family and the great Duke. His Grace was present at the proclamation, coronation, and marriage of the Queen. The Queen's third son, Arthur, is so named in honor of his godfather, the Duke of Wellington, on whose natal day he was born.

The Duke died at Walmer Castle in his eighty-fourth year, leaving two sons to inherit his name. His death was the result of natural decay without any lengthened warning. On the 14th of September, 1852, he suffered from a slight fit of indigestion. This brought on a fit of epilepsy, which immediately rendered him speechless, and about seven hours after he breathed his last.

Many relics of the Duke are preserved at Walmer Castle; notably the little camp bed on which he regularly slept, the arm-chair in which he died, and the folding-chair used in his campaigns.

His Grace was accorded a State funeral on the 18th of November, the obsequies being arranged on a vast scale. The military power of Britain was very fully represented, every regiment in the service sending officers and men. Referring to the foreign powers, the deceased Duke was a Field-Marshal of five of the armies of Europe, Marshal-General of the Portuguese army, and Captain-General of the army of Spain. The various batons were borne by illustrious generals representing their respective sovereigns, by whom the distinctions had been conferred. Prince Albert was present, and of knights representing Army, Navy, and Civil Service, of corporate, learned, and other bodies, and of distinguished and exalted personages, there was an enormous attendance. The people in end-

less thousands lined the route of the funeral procession. The proceedings terminated under the dome of St. Paul's, when the mortal remains were laid in their last resting-place. The ceremony was most impressive; many of the Duke's old companions-in-arms were deeply affected. As the coffin was about to be lowered into the vault, the aged Marquis of Anglesey, the commander of the cavalry at Waterloo, and who there lost a leg, stepped forward, placed his hand upon the coffin and burst into tears.



ST. PAUL'S CATHEDRAL, LONDON.

Thus passed away Arthur, Duke of Wellington. Full of years beyond the term of mortality, and of honors almost beyond human parallel, he descended into his grave amid the regrets of a generation who could only learn his deeds from their forefathers, but who knew that the national glory which they witnessed, and the national security which they enjoyed, were due, under God's providence, to the hero whom they had then lost.

There is a perpetual struggle going on between Britain and Russia. Britain seeks to prevent Russia from destroying the Turkish Empire and taking possession of Constantinople; Russia in return threatens the peace and permanency of the British Empire in India. West of the Indus lies the mountain kingdom of Afghanistan. It has three principal cities, Cabul, Herat, and Candahar. The natives of Afghanistan are brave, warlike, active and intelligent—a people to be by no means down-trodden or despised. The eyes of the British rulers of India are constantly turned in this direction as the probable source of attempts against our rule. Wherever the sea washes the shores of the peninsula British India is invulnerable; on the north an effectual rampart is provided by the mighty Himalayas; it is there, in the extreme north-west, that external danger may be expected to manifest itself. As early as 1808, during the short-lived alliance between Napoleon and Alexander of Russia, the Indian Government had apprehended an invasion from this quarter. The dread of Russian aggression has never died out since that date—has indeed been considerably stimulated by the continued advance of Russia in Central Asia—an advance which has at last brought her to the very borders of Afghanistan.

In the summer months of 1837, when Queen Victoria's reign began, a British officer, Captain Alexander Burnes (a relative of the great poet Burns, though he spelled his name differently), arrived in Cabul, directed by his Government to see what could be done towards finding a market for British goods in Afghanistan. He was well received by the Ameer, Dost Mohammed.

Burnes recommended the Indian Government to make an alliance with Dost Mohammed. Instead of doing this, the Indian Government treated Dost Mohammed as an usurper. Shah Se'jah was to be made Ameer. An army was sent into Afghanistan to seat him on the throne. This was a mistake; but from first to last the Governor-General, as if blinded by some adverse destiny, did all that he ought not, and neglected all that he ought to have done. He blundered on with a dangerous and dishonorable policy which dealt a fatal blow to the reputation of the British Government for just dealing and scrupulous good faith.

Towards the close of November, 1838, "the army of the Indus" had assembled at Ferozepore. The total of the forces to be employed was 21,000 effective fighting men. The expedition was accompanied by Mr. Macnaghten, who was to assume office as envoy and minister at Cabul. The expedition reached Cabul, after experiencing great hardships.

It did not take long to find out that it would be necessary to keep a large and permanent garrison of British troops in Cabul if Shah Soojah was to be maintained upon his throne. The moment the British should march away his subjects would dethrone him, and restore Dost Mohammed. The British troops accordingly remained. At length Dost Mohammed surrendered, and was sent to Hindostan. Then the British force was greatly reduced. Shortly after, under the leadership of Akbar Khan, a son of Dost Mohammed, the Afghans broke out into open rebellion. They murdered some Europeans, and then proceeded to sack the city of Cabul. General Elphinstone, in charge of the British troops, refused to act. When too late, it was seen that this was a fatal mistake; for soon the British were practically besieged by the Afghans. Provisions were running short in the British camp. Disagreements among the British Generals made matters worse.

It was resolved to open negotiations for the capitulation of the army. The Afghans would hear of no terms but unconditional surrender. This was refused. In a few days, however, their case became so desperate that a capitulation was agreed upon, more dishonorable than had ever happened to British arms.

The British army was to evacuate Afghanistan as speedily as possible by the Khyber Pass, receiving assistance in transportation and provisions. On January 6th, 1842, in the depth of winter (and Cabul stands 6,000 feet above the level of the sea), the troops—700 British, 3,800 Indian soldiers, and 12,000 camp followers—marched out to begin their retreat. The moment the soldiers left the citadel its guns were turned upon them, slaughtering indiscriminately friend and foe. That night the soldiers passed unsheltered in the snow, unprovided with covering or provisions. The Europeans could withstand the cold to some extent; but the feeble children of India, unused to so severe a climate, perished like flies. The Sepoys fell on the line of march; but, preserving the instincts of discipline, they awaited death in silence.

Such was the beginning of the end. To some extent, though necessarily on a smaller scale, the British retreat copied the painful features of Napoleon's retreat from Moscow. The line of retreat became a veritable shambles. Benumbed by the cold, the troops and camp followers fell easy victims to the Afghans. The British troops made several gallant stands, but could avail nothing against the fierce Afghans in overwhelming numbers. In the Khyber Pass, five miles in length, the massacre was frightful.

Akbar, with his chiefs and followers, kept close on the track of the retreating force. Akbar, treacherously pretending friendship, professed that his object was to save the British, but Mackenzie writes that Pottinger said to him: "Mackenzie, remember if I am killed that I heard Akbar Khan shout, 'Slay them!' in Pushtoo, although in Persian he called out to stop the firing." As those in the rear of the retreating British went forward they came upon one sight of horror after another. There were children cut in two; Hindostanee women as well as men—some frozen to death, some literally chopped to pieces, many with their throats cut from ear to ear. Men fell fast in the horrid defile, struck down by the Afghan fire from the heights. The slaughter from the Afghan fire blocked the gorge with dead and dying. The Ghilzai tribesmen, at every turn, blocked the way. Then the steep slopes would suddenly swarm with Afghans rushing sword in hand down to the work of butchery. The massacre ceased not while living victims remained. The rear-guard regiment of Sepoys was exterminated, save for two or three desperately wounded officers who contrived to reach the advance.

At one point the Afghans had constructed a formidable abattis of prickly brush-wood. This stretched athwart the road, and dammed back the fugitives. In this trap were caught our hapless people and the swarm of their native followers. Now the end was very near. From behind the barrier, and around the lip of the great trap, the hillmen fired their hardest into the seething mass of soldiers and followers writhing in the awful Gehenna on which the calm moon shone down. On the edges of this whirlpool of death the Ghilzais were stabbing and hacking with the ferocious industry inspired by thirst for blood and lust for plunder. It is a characteristic of the British race, as of all brave men, to die game, yea, even to thrill with a strange, fierce joy when hope of escape from death has all but passed away and there remains only to sell life dearly. Among our people, face to face with death in that rocky pass, officers and soldiers alike fought with cool, deadly rancor.

Here is the end of the first chapter of this sorrowful tale. About noon on the 17th of January, 1842, the British soldiers who kept guard on the ramparts of Jellalabad saw in the distance a solitary horseman slowly and painfully staggering across the open plain. They wondered among themselves who this jaded traveller might be. As he drew nearer, it became evident that the weary animal he rode could scarcely stumble farther on its way, and that he himself was worn and wan, like one who had suffered greatly. A party was sent

forth to his assistance. His name was soon known and his tale told—the dark, the appalling tale of the destruction of an army! He was Dr. Brydone, and the sole survivor, one hundred and twenty prisoners and some four or five natives excepted, of the sixteen thousand fighting men and camp followers who, eleven days before, had marched out of Cabul.

For many months negotiations were in progress for the release of the British prisoners whom Akbar Khan had taken during the disastrous retreat from Cabul.

The bitter experiences of the captives, from that miserable January day on which they passed under the presumably friendly protection of Akbar Khan until their release, are recorded very fully and most interestingly by Lady Sale, by Vincent Eyre, and by Colin Mackenzie.

Akbar Khan, it appears, did not allow them to be wilfully illtreated. On the contrary, the unanimous testimony of the released prisoners was to the effect that Akbar Khan, violent, bloody, and passionate man though he was, behaved toward them with kindness and a certain rude chivalry. Nevertheless, they lived under a long strain of anxiety and apprehension, for none of them knew what the morrow might bring forth.

At length their jailor cautiously hinted that a reward and a pension might induce him to carry his charges into the British camp. A private meeting was arranged between the Afghan commandant and the British officers. The Afghan intimated the receipt of instructions to carry the prisoners further into the interior, into what would be but hopeless captivity. On the other hand, a messenger had whispered to the Afghan that if he restored the prisoners General Pollok would ensure him a reward of 20,000 rupees, and a life pension of 12,000 rupees a year. The Afghan demanded and received a guarantee from the British officers. The captives bound themselves to make good from their own resources their redemption money. The Afghan proved himself honest. The captives were captives no longer. They were practically free. Then came the welcome tidings that Akbar had been defeated, and had fled no one knew whither, whereupon the self-emancipated partys et out for Cabul. At noon of the 17th of September they met Shakespear and his horsemen, who were on the way to rescue them. On the 21st they entered Cabul.

The attention of Lord Ellenborough, the new Governor-General, was necessarily directed towards Afghanistan. The prestige of the British arms must be restored. It was essential to the security of our rule in India that we should

chastise the Afghans for their breach of faith with the retreating British column. An army of retribution was speedily collected. The dreaded Khyber Pass was successfully traversed in the face of desperate resistance from hordes of Afghans. Swiftly and surely the victorious British commander pressed onwards, defeating the Afghans in every encounter. On the 16th of September, 1842, Sir George Pollock entered Cabul, and soon, amid ringing cheers and the well-known strains of England's national anthem, the British standard was planted on the summit of the citadel.

The axiom that history repeats itself finds a striking illustration in the second Afghan war, which, in its cause and many of its incidents, was a repetition of the first. In 1879 the British Consul at Cabul was murdered. This massacre must be avenged. An army was gathered, under the command of Sir Frederick Roberts. Major-General Roberts, in 1879, was already deservedly esteemed one of the most brilliant soldiers of the British army. He had fought with distinction all through the Great Mutiny; he had served in the Abyssinian expedition of 1868, and been chosen by the Commander to carry home his final despatches; he had worthily shared in the toil, fighting, and honors of other expeditions. In his command in Afghanistan, in the preceding year, he had proved himself a skilful, resolute, and vigorous leader. The Afghans had come to regard him with fear and trembling. The officers and men who served under him believed in him enthusiastically. His administrative capacity had been proved in the post of Quartermaster-General in India. With much experience of war, Roberts at the age of forty-seven was in the full vigor of manhood, alert in mind, and of tough and enduring physique. Sir Frederick Roberts was hurried forward on Cabul charged with the duty of avenging the perpetration of a foul and treacherous crime. He conducted the campaign in his usual energetic and successful style. He, however, met with bitter opposition from the Afghans.

In one action it was estimated that the Afghan strength did not fall short of 40,000 men. So overwhelming was the odds against him that Roberts was reluctantly compelled to abandon further offensive efforts. He stated his reasons with perfect frankness. "Up to this time I had no reason to apprehend that the Afghans were in sufficient force to cope successfully with disciplined troops, but the resolute and determined manner in which the conical hill had been captured, and the information sent to me by Brigadier-General Macpherson that large

masses of the enemy were still advancing from the north, south, and west, made it evident that the numbers combined against us were too overwhelming to admit of my comparatively small force meeting them. I therefore determined to withdraw from all isolated positions, and to concentrate the whole force at Sherpur, thus securing the safety of our large cantonment, and avoiding what had now become a useless sacrifice of life."

On Roberts falling back to Sherpur, the Afghans advanced, more confident than ever. Had they been content to besiege the British, the British would have suffered most severely—perhaps, in the end, have been annihilated. But, impatient of delay, the Afghans boldly advanced to the assault. The British had timely warning. The Afghans were repulsed. Becoming panic-stricken, they broke and fled, pursued by the British. Thus ended resistance in that quarter. On the 12th of October, 1879, the British once more triumphantly entered Cabul.

Shortly afterwards, a terrible disaster happened to our arms near Candahar, which was garrisoned by a British force under General Primrose. On the 27th of July, 1880, General Burrows, with a force of only 2,500 British and Indian soldiers, attacked the army of Ayooob Khan, about 20,000 strong. This engagement is known as the battle of Maiwand. The Afghans were strongly entrenched. The British soon saw they were hopelessly outnumbered; for that reason they fought the more desperately.

The artillerymen and sappers made a gallant stand. They fought the Afghans hand-to-hand with handspikes and rammers, while the guns poured canister into the advancing masses. But the guns finally fell into the enemy's hands. The torrent of Afghans then broke in upon the gallant 66th Regiment and overwhelmed it. The slaughter of the Sepoys at this point was appalling. They scarcely attempted a defence, but allowed themselves without resistance to be dragged out of the ranks and killed. The British cavalry having reformed, a charge was ordered in the direction of the captured guns, but it failed and the troopers retired in disorder. The infantry, assailed by hordes of fierce and triumphant ghazees, staggered away, the 66th alone maintaining any show of formation. Then the broken remnants of the Sepoy regiments took to flight, the General's efforts to rally them proving wholly unavailing. The 66th with some of the sappers and grenadiers, made a gallant stand round its colors. Colonel Galbraith and several of his officers were killed. Finally, after four hours severe fighting, the British were forced to retire. The Afghans pursued the British for



THE LAST GALLANT STAND OF THE 66TH REGIMENT AT THE
BATTLE OF MAIWAND, JULY 27TH, 1880.

about four miles, but were checked by a detachment of rallied cavalry. The British loss was heavy. Over 300 rank and file, with many officers, were killed; while over 700 of the Indian troops were killed or missing. The survivors made the best of their way to Candahar, fifty miles distant. For some unaccountable reason, Ayooob Khan, satisfied with the victory obtained, did not follow up the fugitives.

Soon the British in Candahar were besieged by the Afghans, now flushed with victory. The tidings of the Maiwand disaster reached Cabul two days later by telegram from Simla. It was at once decided that to retrieve this disaster and deliver the small garrison at Candahar was an indispensable necessity. Sir Donald Stewart and his advisers determined on a daring plan, though not unaware of the dangerous consequences to the British empire in India, which would assuredly supervene upon its failure. With an army of 10,000 men—2,835 Europeans, the balance being Ghoorikas, and Sikhs—Sir Frederick Roberts suddenly started from Cabul, and undertook a march of three hundred miles through a practically unknown country to Candahar. For three weeks nothing was heard of the bold general and his faithful followers. Then he and they reappeared upon the scene, victorious. With immense skill and resolution Roberts had accomplished his desperate enterprise, had reached Candahar, had fallen like a thunderbolt upon Ayooob Khan, and crushed him. The honor of Britain was avenged, her prestige saved.

The distance of three hundred miles was covered in the remarkably short time of twenty days. It is customary in a long march to allow two rest days in each week, but Roberts granted his force but a single rest day in the twenty days of its strenuous march. The average daily march was a fraction over fifteen miles. As a feat of marching by a regular force of 10,000 men encumbered with baggage and followers, this achievement is unique. It was accomplished only by thorough organization and steady, vigorous energy. "It was not," wrote General Chapman, "with eager desire that the honor of marching to Candahar was sought for, and some commanding officers of experience judged rightly the tempers of their men when they represented for the General's consideration the claims of the regiments they commanded to be relieved as soon as possible from field service. The enthusiasm which carried Sir Frederick Roberts' force with exceptional rapidity to Candahar was an after-growth evolved by the enterprise itself, and came as a response to the unfailing spirit which animated the leader himself."

The Afghans and the British are now fast friends. In 1885 the Ameer visited Lord D. Ferin, the British Viceroy, at Rawul-Pindi. In a grand durbar it was declared that "England and Afghanistan will stand side by side."

Lord Roberts' memorable relief of Candahar made a wonderful impression on the Afghans. While on a visit to the Ameer of Afghanistan in 1885, Lord Roberts was literally besieged by old soldiers begging that they might be allowed to return to the colors and fight once more. "One native officer, who had been with me in Afghanistan," says Lord Roberts, "came to me and said, 'I am afraid, Sahib, I am too old and infirm to do more work myself, but you must take my two sons with you; they are ready to die for the Angrese (English).'"

When Lord Roberts was in Nepal in 1892 he met General Shamsheer, a very red-hot native soldier. Said this native General to Lord Roberts, "When are the Russians coming? I wish that they would make haste. We have forty thousand soldiers in Nepal ready for war, and there is no one to fight!"

In 1865 the attention of the British Parliament was directed to the harsh treatment which certain British subjects were experiencing at the hands of Theodore, the "Negus," or King of Abyssinia. These men had been seized by Theodore while they were actually engaged on official business for the British Government. The national honor was therefore engaged in their deliverance. Yet it was evident that this would be a task of considerable delicacy as well as difficulty. There was ever the fear that, on the first appearance of a military movement, Theodore, a man of strong barbaric temper, might order the massacre of the prisoners. All attempts at conciliation having failed, an ultimatum was sent by Lord Stanley, in 1867, demanding their release within three months on penalty of war. No reply was made to this despatch; indeed, it is not certain that it reached Theodore's hands, although that would probably have made no difference. An expedition was accordingly determined upon, the command of which was entrusted to Sir Robert Napier (afterwards created Lord Napier of Magdala), Commander-in-Chief of the army of Bombay.

On January 7th, 1868, the British army of 12,000 men, drawn from the presidency, was landed at Zoulla, on Annesley Bay. Zoulla was in the Province of Tigré, then in rebellion against Theodore. It was found necessary to make the road to Magdala, the capital, four hundred miles long, across valleys and over mountains, where there were only bridle paths which the sure-footed,

active little Abyssinians on horses were alone able to travel. The days were hot, the nights extremely cold. Horses and mules died by hundreds from fatigue or want of water. Had the country through which they passed been well affected to Theodore, a mere handful of men stationed on many a rocky cliff looking down on many a difficult mountain pass, might have obstructed the whole army. But Kassa, the Prince of Tigré, was the enemy of Theodore. The British army paying for all supplies, was generally welcomed all along its route.

On Good Friday of the year 1868 the British army reached the plateau of Affejo, near Magdala, the capital. Here a bloody battle was fought. The Abyssinian warriors poured forth in thousands and advanced on the British troops.

They were met by a portion of the British troops. Instantaneously two quick volleys of musketry were flashed in the faces of the dusky foe, and like a stream of fire volleys ran from side to side without a pause, raining such a storm of leaden hail that for a time the enemy halted from sheer astonishment. It was as if they were paralysed at the very moment they intended to launch out their spears, and one could almost fancy that these weapons vibrated in their hands, from the impetus they were about to give them. Slowly they seemed to regain consciousness, and, horrified, they gazed upon the awful result. Strangest sight it was to them, who had ever been victorious in the field of battle, to see their own men tumble by the dozen, by scores, by fifties, into the embrace of death.

"Retreat!" cried the chiefs. The enemy did retreat, but not fast enough. They broke in a panic, and endeavored to take vantage of boulders to escape the whizzing bullets; but the bullets found them out, searched out each bush and around each rock, and stretched the men behind dead upon the ground.

Mr. Stanley says: "Here was one running for dear life for a copse; but suddenly you saw him leap into the air and fall on his face, clutching the ground savagely. Here was another one, with head bent low, in the vain thought that if his head escaped he would be safe, making all haste to get into a hollow, out of reach of the leaden storm; but even as the haven dawned upon his frenzied eyes, a whirring pellet caught him, and sent him rolling down the incline. There was another one, just about to dodge behind a massive boulder, from where he could take slight revenge, but before he could ensconce himself the unerring ball went crashing through his brain; and there was another about to plunge in hot haste down a ravine to the left who had his skull shattered by a rocket, and with a dull sound the body fell down the precipice."

The whole of the British force now came into action, and the Abyssinians, though they behaved with great gallantry, could not withstand the immense preponderance of power which was arrayed against them. The ground was strewn with evidences of slaughter—the ravine was literally choked with the dead and dying, and the little stream that watered it was crimson with blood. It is known that the Abyssinians lost from 700 to 800 killed, and 1,500 were wounded, most of them severely. Many of the survivors fled into the mountains, and did not return to Magdala. All night long the Abyssinians could be heard calling to their wounded comrades, and bearing them off the field. The disproportion between the fighting power of the two combatants is emphatically illustrated by the fact that out of the 2,000 British and Indian soldiers actually engaged only thirty-two were put *hors de combat*.

King Theodore, when he beheld the destruction of his army, sank into despair. His power was gone; nothing remained but submission. He despatched two of his captives, Lieutenant Prideaux and Mr. Flud, next morning to Napier's camp, expressing his earnest desire to be reconciled to the British. But such reconciliation was impossible. British honor, to be sure, might have been satisfied with the liberation of the prisoners, and due reparation for the indignities they had sustained. But the Abyssinians had warmly welcomed the invaders, had freely supplied and assisted them throughout the campaign, and it would be impossible to abandon them to the mercies of a pitiless chief such as Theodore had proved himself to be. Moreover, to have come so far, and spent so much money, merely to set the captives free, was no longer enough. More was demanded; the surrender and dethronement of Theodore.

Theodore refused to yield, although he delivered up the captives. Magdala was taken by storm. Theodore committed suicide. The fortifications of Magdala were razed to the ground, its cannon destroyed, and its buildings given to the flames. On the 18th of April the British force re-crossed the Beshilo, and on the 20th a grand review was held on the Dalanta plateau. Before the month was out the last British soldier had departed from Annesley Bay. Thus ended the Abyssinian Expedition, which, from most points of view, the reader may regard with satisfaction. The cause of quarrel was absolutely just; the main objects for which the expedition was undertaken were secured, and public opinion was still sufficiently alive to the honor of Britain to approve the addition of a penny to the Income Tax to maintain it. The experience acquired, during active

service, by many young officers was a clear gain to the country ; and, in traversing a very interesting and remarkable region, some additional knowledge was collected by those who were specially sent out for the purpose, in several branches of science.

By the 2nd July Sir R. Napier and the British troops had returned to England, and were warmly received by their countrymen. The expedition cost about fifty millions of dollars—quite a large sum for a “little war,” as this was called.

The actual strength of the expeditionary force landed at Annesley Bay was : Officers, 520 ; European troops, 4,250 ; native troops, 9,447 ; followers, 26,214 ; civilians, 433 ; women followers, 140 ; total, 41,004 ; with 4,735 camels, 45 elephants, over 20,000 mules and other animals for transport purposes, and with over 20,000 sheep and bullocks for the commissariat department. The casualties were 11 officers and 37 men killed.

CHAPTER X.

Some Foreign Wars (Continued).

The Crimean War—The Egyptian Campaigns—Gordon in Egypt—The Opium War in China—
The Northwest Rebellion—The Horrors of War—Neutral States—Settlement by Arbitration.

IT is still undecided whether the Crimean war was a just and necessary one; whether, with greater firmness on the part of our rulers, it might or might not have been avoided; whether it was or was not precipitated by Louis Napoleon to serve a selfish dynastic purpose; whether, in any degree, it sprang from a misunderstanding on the part of Russia as to the views and motives of the British Government. The ostensible cause of the war was the rejection by the Sultan of an ultimatum from Prince Menschikoff, on behalf of the Czar of Russia, demanding that the Sultan should grant to the Czar a certain protectorate over the Greek Christians in Turkey. The Sultan appealed to the British and French Governments.

Lord Stratford de Redclyffe, "the great Elchi," as he was familiarly called, was British Ambassador at Constantinople at this time. He was very successful in checkmating Russian diplomacy. At the same time he was not afraid to speak his mind to the Sultan. Here is an anecdote told by one of his attachés:

"I was with him one day in his ten-oared caique upon the Bosphorus when we passed a large garden in which preparations were being made for building. Lord Stratford told me to land and inquire whose it was. On being told that the Sultan was about building a new summer palace he ordered the boatmen to row straight to where the Sultan was living. He was announced as desiring an immediate audience. It was just at the opening of the Crimean War, and Abdul Medjid received him with smiles, thinking he had come to bring important news from the Danubian Provinces. But the great Elchi, who had a quick temper, burst out with, "His Majesty has eight palaces already. Ask him would he spend his money, scarcely sufficient as it is to buy bread for his troops in the field, in building a ninth palace for the Emperor of Russia to occupy?—for no assistance can be expected from the allies of Turkey if they see such reckless extravagance going on!"



CRIMEA, 1854, SOUNDING THE ALARM.

In February, 1854, the British and French Governments sent an ultimatum to the Czar. The Czar "did not judge it suitable to give an answer." In March, France and Britain declared war against Russia. The allied powers dispatched expeditions to the scene of war, Lord Raglan being in command of the British forces, and the Marshal St. Arnaud in command of those of France.

The war was immensely popular with all classes in the United Kingdom. At a dinner at the Mansion House, London, soon after the declaration of war, Sir George Hamilton Seymour, the late Ambassador to Russia, made a remarkable speech, which was received with great applause. It was a speech that may be read with profit even at this late day. After returning thanks for the honor which they had done him in drinking his health, Sir George proceeded to say that "he might begin by remarking that the confidence which they were pleased to place in him, the confidence they reposed in him, was due in great measure to the system of diplomacy adopted by the British Government. That system was remarkably simple. It consisted in a man keeping his eyes as wide open as he could, and in writing home observations—not such as were most likely to please the British Government, but such as they appeared to be to the man himself. That was the system universally adopted by British diplomatists. Unfortunately it was not followed abroad. In particular it was not adopted by the Russian Government. The consequences were what they had all seen. Had the Russian Government followed the same practice he believed that none of the present evils would have come to pass. But, unfortunately, a contrary course was adopted. Nothing could be more inexact, nothing more false, than the notions with regard to Europe in general that were circulated through Russia. What did they write with regard to the provinces of Turkey? They wrote nothing but that the greatest horrors prevailed, that the priests were murdered at the altar, that the Christian temples were burned, that the grossest sacrileges were everywhere committed, things that made his hair stand on end, till he found that he could not trace a single word of truth in the whole relation. What did they write from Constantinople? They wrote that the interesting invalid, the Sultan, got worse and worse; that his flesh and his appetite were quite gone; that his obstinacy was such that he refused to take the prescriptions which the Imperial physician was good enough to send to him. What did they write from London? They wrote that John Bull was a very material fellow; that he was immersed in the three per cents; that he was very fond of the creature comforts;

that he was most unwilling to interrupt his present flow of prosperity by meddling with affairs with which he had no direct concern. So much for Britain. What did they write from France? Why, they represented that country as having hardly escaped from one revolution or political change, and as being only bent upon avoiding another; that the men of commerce were intent upon realizing large fortunes; that the Government was Imperial in its sympathies; and above all, the idea of a close connection between Britain and France was treated as a myth, as a thing to be talked of, but never to be realized. But it might be asked, what was the British Minister about all this time? The English Minister, he might tell them, was a very small man. He did what he could, but his voice was small. It was not what was said to the Emperor of Russia in the English language that availed anything, but what was said to him in the Russian language. He was persuaded that, if there had been anyone among his advisers of courage or of character sufficient to tell his Majesty the exact truth, his Majesty would never have followed his present unfortunate course. The result was that Britain was now plunged into a war with a country with which we had long been on the most friendly relations; a country that had many sympathies with this country—as might be expected when it was considered that half of its produce was not only purchased by Britain, but paid for beforehand, and with a very kindly people, for he could not conceal it, that he had found in Russia many kind hearts among the people. But if they had lost an ancient ally on the one side, the circumstances of the case had had the extraordinary effect, with regard to another country, of wiping away the results of centuries of jealousy and hostility, and of producing a state of friendly feeling which, he trusted, would be equally durable. He need not say that he alluded to their ally the French nation. In every language there were words of peculiar significance and importance. Thus, when they said in English that a man behaved himself like a gentleman, they bestowed upon him the highest compliment; they meant that such a man would not only fulfil, but go beyond his engagements. Now, in the French language, the words *loyal* and *loyauté* had the same significant meaning. In speaking of the French Cabinet, he must say that, as far as his own powers of observation had gone, those terms were peculiarly applicable to the acts of the French Government. As far as he had been able to observe, nothing had been more loyal, nothing more marked by *loyauté* than the proceedings of the French Government. He did not wish to go into

any personal affairs; but there was one slight circumstance which occurred to himself, and which he thought, as regarded the conduct of the French Government, had not attracted the attention it deserved. Among the arts that were used—dodges, he believed, was the modern term used—to separate the British and the French Governments, the Russian Cabinet meted out a very different treatment to the British Minister from what was awarded to the French Minister. For instance, he received one fine winter's morning the agreeable intimation that his back was more agreeable to the Government than his face—that his passports were ready—and that it was desirable that he should set out from St. Petersburg as soon as possible. Nothing of the sort was done to the French Minister. But it happened that this little act was foreseen and discountenanced at Paris. It so happened that when the French Minister heard of it, acting upon his instructions, he wrote to the Russian Cabinet, requesting that a similar passport might be made out for him—and so off he went. It was, therefore, possible, and he hoped it was probable, that the long centuries of hostility that have existed between France and Britain may now be succeeded by as many centuries of peace. Before sitting down let him endeavor to point out the difference between the first and the second empires. The one appeared to him to rest upon war and upon a disregard of national rights; the other rested upon an extreme desire for peace, as long as peace could be preserved upon honorable terms; and upon the greatest respect for all rights and privileges of other nations. There lately resounded through the streets of Paris the cries of "*Vive le Reine Victoria!*" "*Vivent les Anglais!*" He believed he was speaking the universal sentiments of his countrymen when he said that Englishmen would respond to those cries with the shout of "*Vive la France! Vive l'Empereur! Vive la défenseur des droits de l'Europe!*"

There was much enthusiasm on the departure of the British troops. The Queen wrote to her Uncle Leopold:

"The last battalion of the Guards (Scots Fusiliers) embarked to-day. They passed through the courtyard here at 7 a.m. We were on the balcony to see them pass. The morning was fine, the sun shining over the towers of Westminster Abbey, and an immense crowd collected to see the fine men, and cheering them immensely as with difficulty they marched along. They formed in line, presented arms, and then cheered us very heartily, and went off cheering. It was a touching and beautiful sight. Many sorrowing friends were there, and one

saw the shake of many a hand. My best wishes and prayers will be with them all."

Many of the superior officers of the British army went by way of France. The hospitalities shown to them in Paris and other cities of France were of the most courteous and loyal kind.

Instead of leaving the conduct of the war in the hands of its Generals in the Crimea, the British Ministry adopted the monstrously stupid policy of planning the campaign in London. The British Government ordered that the allied armies should attack Sebastopol.

The military authorities at the seat of war disapproved of such an idea. Lord Raglan was much opposed to it, as also were the chief engineer officer of the expedition, the British admiral, and vice-admiral, and Saint-Arnaud.



CZAR NICHOLAS.

"I cannot help seeing," wrote the Duke of Newcastle, in a letter of reply to one from Lord Raglan, "through the calm and noble tone of your announcement of the decision to attack Sebastopol, that it has been taken in order to meet the views and desires of Government, and not in entire accordance with your own opinions. God

grant that success may reward you, and justify us!"

On the 20th of September was fought the bloody battle of the Alma. Here 57,000 of the allies met 46,000 Russians. The battle was begun at noon. By four o'clock the allies were completely victorious. The Russians, utterly routed, fled, having lost 5,000 men. The allies lost about 3,400 men. The two allied commanders went alone together early in the morning to a hill, and surveyed the field of action. Prince George of England (the Duke of Cambridge) commanded an English division; Prince Napoleon (son of King Jerome) commanded a French one.

Marshal Saint-Arnaud, writing to the Emperor, did full justice to the British : "The antique courage of the English general was splendid to see." Lord Raglan had indeed, during part of the engagement, sat in his saddle with placid composure under a tremendous fire of artillery and small arms, quietly conversing with Prince Napoleon.

On the 25th of October the opposing forces again met at Balaklava. This battle will long be remembered in British army annals. The Russians had made an attack in force on a Turkish force. The Turks retreated to the town, which was guarded by the Ninety-third Highlanders, under their gallant chief, Sir Colin Campbell. The Russian cavalry charged full tilt at the Highlanders, who were drawn up in the usual British formation, a line two deep. "I did not think it worth while," said Sir Colin Campbell, "to form them even four deep!" Against this "thin red streak tipped with a line of steel" the Russian horsemen vainly rode, and, after a brief contest, fell back discomfited, with scores of saddles emptied by the British fire. A little later three hundred troopers of the Heavy Brigade, led by Brigadier Scarlett, dashed up the green hill-side to challenge the broad, deep masses of three thousand Russian horsemen. Eager, firm, and impetuous, they gave a hoarse cheer as they crossed swords with the enemy. Shivering the front rank by dint of hard fighting, they literally cut their way in. More British cavalry then came up, and charged the Russians in flank with great effect, enabling the Greys, who had been fighting each for his own hand to rally and re-form, while the enemy, giving way on both sides, dashed helter-skelter across the heights. In this remarkable engagement, which is almost without parallel in the annals of war, the Heavy Brigade lost seventy-eight killed or wounded. The loss of the Russians was very much larger; and such was the moral effect produced upon them by so astonishing a feat of arms that, throughout the rest of the Crimean struggle, their cavalry could not be induced to face the British horsemen. "It was truly magnificent," said a French general, "and to one who could see the enormous numbers opposed to them, the whole valley being filled with Russian troopers, the victory of the Heavy Brigade was the most glorious thing imaginable." "Greys! gallant Greys!" exclaimed Sir Colin Campbell, "I'm sixty-one years old, but if I were young again I should be proud to be in your ranks." It was computed that, from the beginning of General Scarlett's charge to the breaking up of the Russian squadrons, the contest lasted only eight minutes.



"SCOTLAND FOR EVER."
The Charge of the Scots Greys.

Next followed the ever-memorable charge of what Tennyson truly calls the "Noble Six Hundred." Owing to some misconception or misunderstanding of orders, Lord Lucan ordered Lord Cardigan to advance with the Light Brigade and charge the Russians, who had re-formed in vast numbers on their own ground with their cavalry in front. Cardigan saw that the charge meant almost certain death. Nevertheless, he gave the order to charge.

Under a tremendous cross fire, which emptied many a saddle and killed or disabled many a horse, his brave horsemen undauntedly pressed forward, preserving the most admirable order, with their commander still in front, until they reached the Russian battery. Then it was "every man for himself." A volley from many of the pieces tore great gaps in their ranks; but the survivors dashed into the smoke-cloud with the mass of horsemen behind it. In a few minutes the enemy recovered from the breathless surprise induced by so daring, so exceptional a passage of arms, and realizing the fact that a mere handful of British horsemen was in their midst, and that they must ride back through the valley of fire before they could regain their own lines, pushed forward a swarm of lancers to cut off their retreat. Colonel Shewell, who, as senior officer present, took the command, immediately drew together the small knots of Lancers and Hussars within reach, and rode straight at the Muscovite spears with a shock that completely broke them up, and scattered them far and wide. When the remnants of the brigade had formed up, Lord Cardigan addressed them: "Men! it is a mad-brained trick, but it is no fault of mine." Some of the men answered, "Never mind, my lord! we are ready to go again." Lord Cardigan replied, "No, no, men! you have done enough." The charge, the combat, and the retreat occupied in all about twenty minutes.

Of 670 British horsemen who made the charge, only 198 returned. Well may we

Honour the charge they made;
Honour the Light Brigade;
Noble Six Hundred!

The charge of the Light Brigade practically ended the battle of Balaklava. The battle began before dawn, and the allies fought fasting until after dark, when rum and biscuit were served out to them. The Russians retired at night, having gained nothing by their battle. They had intended to surprise the British, and to force their way between the two parts of the allied army



The Queen, Distributing Decorations to Wounded Officers and Soldiers from the Crimea,
May 21, 1856.

The Battle of Inkermann was fought on the 5th of November. The Russians, some 40,000 strong, attacked the British, some 8,000 strong, before daybreak. They were kept at bay for six hours, until the French, 6,000 strong, came up. Then ensued a regular "soldiers' battle." Kingslake says: "It was a series of dreadful deeds of daring, of sanguinary hand-to-hand fights, of despairing rallies, of desperate assaults, in glens and valleys, in brushwood glades and remote dells—from which the conquerors, Russian or British, issued only to engage fresh foes, till our old supremacy, so rudely assailed, was triumphant, and the battalions of the Czar gave way before our steady courage and the chivalrous fire of France."

In the end the Russians were defeated.

It was eight o'clock at night before the last piece of cannon passed back within the Russian lines. The Russians left 9,000 killed and wounded on the field. The allies lost over 3,000 in killed and wounded.

The battles being over, nothing remained for the allies but the siege and bombardment of Sebastopol.

The siege dragged its slow length along. Storms, sickness, cold weather, scandalous inefficiency and red-tapeism in the military administration, all combined to cause great mortality among the allies. Owing to the failure of the commissariat the troops suffered terribly. Lord Raglan was severely handled by the British press, who held him responsible for so deplorable a state of affairs. The Government also censured the Commander-in-Chief; but it was presently plainly evident that the principal culpability was at home.

"Let the reader," wrote a staff-officer, "imagine in the coldest days of an English winter, the poorest family he has ever known, whose food is just sufficient to sustain existence, whose fuel is mere stubble and trash picked up upon neighboring commons and hedges, who lie down hungry and cold at night to shiver till cheerless morning, and then remember that to all these privations must be added want of shelter from drenching rain and sleet and frost, and he will be able to realize the condition of the troops in front of Sebastopol after the end of October."

The following remarkable letter from Colonel Napier appeared in the *Times*:

"Sir,—Quoting from your correspondent in yesterday's leading article on the state of the war, you say: 'There is no doubt, no despondency out here; no one feels diffident for an instant of ultimate success.' I must admit I would not

have given credence to the above had I not at the same time happened to have seen a letter dated, 'Camp before Sebastopol, January 15th,' from a regimental officer of rank, which completely corroborates this fact. After describing the wretched state of our soldiers, still under canvas, the thermometer at 8 degrees and 10 degrees (which is 19 degrees lower than it has been here during the coldest weather we have had of late), with three feet of snow on the ground, starved, overworked, without fuel wherewith to cook the rations, their clothes in rags, and in many cases without soles to their shoes, he says, 'The poor fellows work, and starve and freeze, and without a murmur, die.'

"Adverting next to your memorable article on the 23rd of December, on the state of affairs in the camp before Sebastopol, every word of which he says is true, this officer thus continues, after alluding to a friend about to return home: 'For my part I would not myself go home if I could; I was always a hardy animal, and hope to pull through it, and see the business out, for Sebastopol must fall.' And this noble fellow, a true specimen of indomitable endurance and real British pluck, belongs to that 'regimental' class on whom it was attempted to throw the whole onus of our failures during the war. They are at the camp most anxious for the assault; but alas! it is like their wish for dry, frosty weather during the lately prevailing rains. They appeared little to foresee what the realization of such a wish would bring.



CRIMEAN SOUVENIR RIBBON.

"Weeks and weeks ago I wrote and warned the 'authorities' (warnings based on personal experience) of what a Crimean winter was likely to be. Weeks and weeks ago, I recommended that large quantities of sheepskin clothing should be sent out to our troops; I warned the authorities of the probably fatal consequences of their attempting to pass the winter under tents; I recommended that subterranean habitations should be dug, and excavations made for shelter in the sides of the hills. I did this at the risk of being called an officious meddler, but unexpectedly received most courteous replies to the suggestions which I made. However, in this aristocratic land, when was an opinion, unbacked by 'title, high position, parliamentary influence or wealth,' ever thought worthy of the slightest regard? Had my suggestions been attended to, even with the Bala-klava road in its present state, a repetition of the Moscow tragedy might possibly not have ensued.

"Our rulers have wantonly neglected, in the prosecution of the war, those appliances of mechanism and science which are at their command. I pointed out a means by which I imagined—and still imagine—the dockyards, arsenal and shipping of Sebastopol might be destroyed, without on our part the loss of a single man. At all events, the trial might have been made. It might yet be made, and at very little cost, even were expense to be regarded with such an object in view. I could at this moment show how the efficiency of our troops, and their destructive powers, might be greatly increased, but publicity in this case would prove of more advantage to the enemy than to ourselves, for they might condescend to avail themselves of a suggestion which our rulers would only 'pooh, pooh.'"

It is certain that the blame for the sufferings of the troops must be laid chiefly at the door of the Ministry of the day. Influenced probably by the press and the public, the Minister obliged Lord Raglan, against his better judgment, to undertake an enterprise of which no one knew the hardships, and for which his army was entirely unprepared.

In June, 1855, the French made an assault upon the Mamelon, a Russian fortified outpost. "The Zouaves," said an English officer, "went up the hills like hounds." They were repulsed. They attacked it a second time. Then the Russians spiked their guns and retired. The next day there was an armistice to bury the dead. Count Toistoi, the Russian writer, gives an excellent description: "White flags are flying on our fortifications, and on the French intrenchments

In the blossom-covered valley mutilated bodies clothed in blue or grey, with bare feet, lie in heaps, and men are carrying them off to place them in carts. The air is poisoned by the odor of the corpses. Crowds of people pour out of Sebastopol and out of the French camp, to witness this spectacle. The different sides meet each other on this ground with gifts and courtesies, and kindly curiosity. 'What a miserable work we are carrying on,' says a Russian to a French officer; and eager to carry on the conversation, he continues, 'It was hot last night, was it not?'—pointing to the corpses. 'Oh! monsieur, it is frightful. But what fine fellows your Russian soldiers are! It is a pleasure to fight such fellows as that.' 'It must be owned that your fellows are up to the mark, too,' replies the Russian cavalry-man, with a salute. Yes! flags float over the bastions, and on the intrenchments; the brilliantly shining sun is setting in the blue waters which ripple and sparkle beneath its golden rays. Thousands of people assemble, look at each other, chat and laugh. People who are Christians, who profess to obey the great law of love, are looking at their own work, and do not think of falling on their knees to repent before Him who gave them life, and with life has implanted the dread of death, and the love of the good and beautiful. They do not embrace each other like brothers, and shed tears of joy and happiness. Well, we Russians must at least take consolation in the thought that we did not begin the war, and are only defending our country! The white flags are lowered; the engines of death and suffering thunder again. Once more a flood of innocent blood is shed, and groans and curses again rise up from earth to heaven."

Attacks on the Malakoff and the Redan, two strongly fortified Russian posts, were next made but without success.

Three months later—on the 5th of September, 1855, the attacks were repeated; this time with success. The French carried the Malakoff. The British failed to carry the Redan. They were preparing to renew their attack the next morning, when they found there was no enemy to oppose them. Sebastopol—that is, its southern portion—had been abandoned during the night.

The Russians in the Malakoff were completely surprised by the French assault. Tolstoi graphically pictures the scene:

"The French lines advanced towards the Malakoff wrapped in smoke, drawing nearer and nearer. The fusilade increased in violence, the smoke belched out at shorter and shorter intervals, extending rapidly along the line in a long light-lilac colored cloud. All noises mingled together in one continuous roar. 'It is

an assault,' said an officer, pale with emotion, as he handed his glass to a companion. Cossacks and officers on horseback were seen galloping along the road, preceding the Commander-in-chief in his carriage. All faces expressed painful emotion. 'It is impossible they can take the Malakoff!' cried an officer on horseback. 'God in heaven! Look now. See the flag!' cried the other, taking his eyes from the glass. 'The French flag,' he exclaimed, choked with emotion, 'is flying from the Malakoff!' 'Impossible!' exclaimed the other."

Yet in truth it was not impossible. The French assault was successful. The French flag was flying from the Malakoff.

With the abandonment of Sebastopol in September the beginning of the end was at hand. It had been the intention of the Russians to blow up the whole city: happily the destruction was less than they had planned.

Skirmishing went on all winter. Finally, on the 1st of February, 1856, the Sebastopol docks were destroyed by the British. A peace conference was opened at Paris on the 25th of February. A treaty of peace was concluded at Paris in March. The Crimea was evacuated in the following July. The total British loss was about 24,000 men. Of this number only 3,500 were killed in action or died of wounds. Cholera and other diseases claimed over 20,000 victims. The French lost about 64,000 men; the Russians about 600,000. The war cost the British nation above 250 millions of dollars. The total cost of the war is estimated at one thousand five hundred millions of dollars.

The British troops were reviewed by Queen Victoria shortly after their return to England. Decorations were freely distributed among both officers and privates. Souvenirs of the war were offered for sale in endless numbers and variety. We reproduce one design—the British and French flags combined with the crescent of Turkey. This was worked in silk in the form of a book-mark. It was very popular.

The sufferings of the troops at the seat of war created intense sympathy throughout the United Kingdom. On the 11th October, 1854, a letter from Sir Robert Peel appeared in the *London Times*, suggesting a subscription for the sick and wounded in the war. In less than a fortnight sixty thousand dollars had been subscribed.

On the 21st of October, 1854, Miss Florence Nightingale left England with a staff of thirty-seven nurses. They arrived at Scutari opposite Constantinople on the 5th of November. They rendered valuable services to the sick and wounded

of the Anglo-French army. Miss Nightingale returned to London September, 1856. Her return stimulated a movement to raise funds to establish an institution for the training of nurses and hospital attendants. Madame Jenny Lind-Goldschmidt sang at a concert in Exeter Hall in aid of the fund. In 1857, when the fund was closed, the subscriptions had amounted to a quarter of a million dollars.

Some years later General Canrobert, who, for some time commanded the French forces in the Crimea, related a fact which redounded to his credit and was at the same time a neat compliment to the valor of the British troops.

At a review of the British army in the Crimea, the Duke of Cambridge who was to have inspected the troops, observing the French Marshal approaching with his staff, requested him to assist, and to take the right. The Marshal at once acquiesced. When they came

Compiegne, there were several general officers present, some of whom ventured to expostulate. The Marshal said: "There is no use in expostulating and endeavoring to conceal the fact; but those victories inscribed upon the colors were won by the British troops against us!"



FLORENCE NIGHTINGALE.

to the trooping of the colors, Canrobert's blood thrilled in his veins at seeing the names of several of our victories over the French. However, having undertaken the task of reviewing our troops, he accomplished the arduous and painful duty imposed upon him, and went down the line without evincing the slightest emotion.

When he related this incident at

In connection with this war we must record the gallant defence of Kars by Sir Fenwick Williams. Kars is a city in Asiatic Turkey. In 1855 it was defended

by General Williams with a Turkish garrison of 15,000 men, against the Russian General Monravieff, with an army of 40,000 infantry and 10,000 cavalry. The siege lasted from June to November. The Russians made a grand assault in September, but were repulsed with a loss of 6,000 men. Famine alone caused Williams to surrender. On accepting Williams' proposal to surrender, the Russian General wrote: "General Williams, you have made yourself a name in history, and posterity will stand amazed at the endurance, the courage, and the discipline which this siege has called forth in the remains of an army. Let us arrange a capitulation that will satisfy the demands of war, without disgracing humanity." In acknowledgment of his memorable defence of Kars, General Williams was in 1856 created a Baronet of the British Empire. From 1859 to 1865 General Sir Fenwick Williams was Commander of the Forces in Canada. In 1865 he was made Lieutenant-Governor of Nova Scotia.

The British Government had for many years been deeply interested in Egypt and its affairs; but it was not till 1882, during the Ministry of Mr. Gladstone which came into power with a sincere determination to interfere as little as possible in foreign or colonial affairs, that Great Britain was forced, as it were, to take up arms in Egypt. No Government was more unwilling to intervene in foreign affairs in any way than that of Mr. Gladstone; and they would not have interfered at all in Egypt had not events been too strong for it.

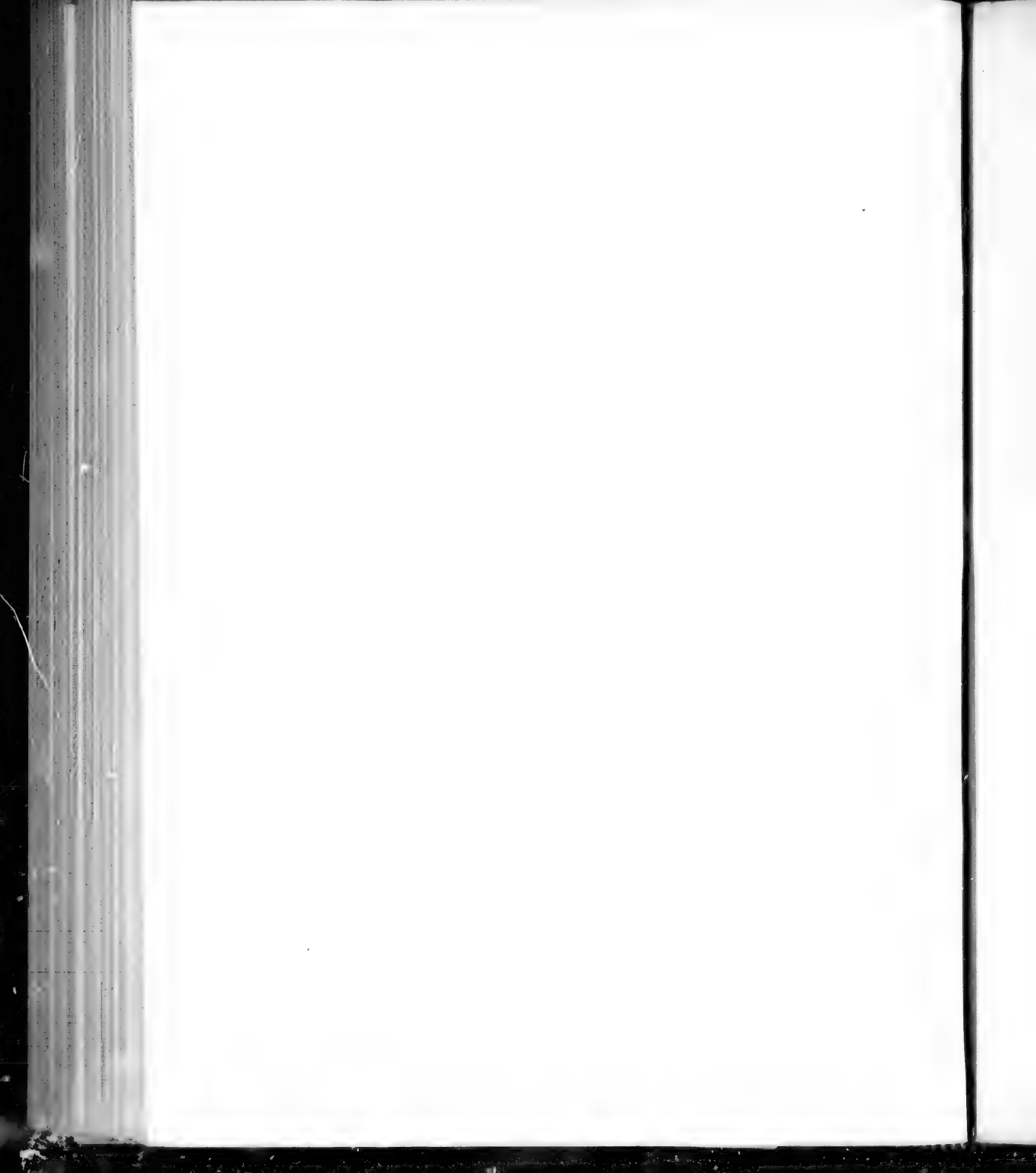
By 1875, the finances of the Khedive of Egypt had become so embarrassed that he was glad to sell his shares in the Suez Canal to the British Government for the sum of twenty millions of dollars. The British were glad to purchase them. At first they had believed that the Canal was a fraud and a delusion. By 1875, they looked upon it as the high road from England to India.

The British Government had also guaranteed to foreign bond-holders the payment of the coupons of Egyptian bonds. Investors had purchased them on this guarantee. The British Government had, therefore, practically imposed upon itself the duty of seeing that the yearly interest was not withheld.

In 1881 a revolution against the authority of the Khedive broke out, under the ostensible leadership of Arabi Bey. By the spring of 1882 it had assumed alarming proportions. By treaty the British Government was bound to support the throne of Tewfik, the Khedive, nor could it regard with indifference a movement which threatened the safe navigation of the Suez Canal and



HER MAJESTY QUEEN VICTORIA
An early picture.



Britain's vast commercial interests in the East. The Mediterranean fleet, under the command of Admiral Sir Beauchamp Seymour (afterwards created Lord Alcester), was ordered to Alexandria, where Arabi was exhibiting great energy in enlarging and strengthening the fortifications. On the 11th of June a riot broke out. Many British and French subjects were killed. It was with difficulty that the British Consul escaped from the fanatical mob. Arabi continued to press forward the defences of Alexandria, until they became a danger and a menace to the British fleet. The Admiral then received orders to prohibit their further extension. This prohibition being disregarded, he was instructed to intimate that unless the forts surrounding the harbor were immediately abandoned with a view to their dismantling, the guns of the fleet would open upon them. The European residents and visitors meanwhile made haste to quit Alexandria. At nightfall on the 10th of July the British fleet took up a position suitable for the work it had to do.

The bombardment was begun by the *Alexandra* at 7 o'clock on the morning of the 11th of July, 1882.

The French war steamers, with every ship that was not British, sailed or steamed out of the harbor. The bombardment continued until 5.30 p.m. Arabi then ran up a flag of truce. Gaining time by this ruse, he with a part of his army abandoned Alexandria and retreated into the interior. The mob took possession of Alexandria and committed great excesses, setting fire to the city and massacring Europeans. The British Admiral landed 800 marines who had arrived from Malta. This force was sufficient to restore order for the time.

The British Government now acted with energy and decision. Reinforcements were hurried to Alexandria: Sir Garnet (now Lord) Wolseley was appointed to the command. It was determined that Arabi and the rebels, as they were called, should be put down. Wolseley drew up a plan of campaign, which he carried out with admirable accuracy, deciding beforehand all its leading details, and arranging where and when the final blow should be struck. He arrived at Alexandria in August. By that time there was a British force of 32,000 men of all ranks in Egypt; with twenty-six ironclads at Alexandria. There were many severe skirmishes between the British and Egyptian troops. At length, having carefully concerted his measures, Wolseley suddenly entered the Suez canal, and carried his transports to a convenient point of disembarkation. From here he led his troops in the silent night to attack Arabi and the Egyptian army, who

lay entrenched at Tel-el-Kebir. That famous night march will long live in military annals. The advance began at half-past one on the morning of September the 13th. With the utmost perfection of discipline the columns kept touch in the silence and the darkness. At daybreak, they broke unexpectedly upon Arabi's entrenchments like a storm of fire. The surprise of the Egyptians was complete. There was some confused firing, and here and there the resistance was desperate enough; but nothing could withstand the rush and onset of the British soldiery. With the bayonet they carried the first line of defences, and in half-an-hour had driven the Egyptian army from their position. The battle of Tel-el-Kebir was a death-blow to Arabi and his army. Arabi himself escaped to Cairo, but he was not given the opportunity to do further mischief. A forced march over desert sands enabled the advance of the British army, under Sir Herbert Stewart, to reach Cairo. The garrison, about ten thousand men, on being summoned, laid down their arms. The small body of the British took possession of the city. Arabi, seeing that his cause was lost, surrendered himself a prisoner. The annals of war—nay, the romances of chivalry—relate no more stirring exploit than that desert ride under the hot Egyptian sun, and then the immediate capture of a great and populous city, which yielded with less ado than Jericho to the trumpets of Joshua!

"The sun was setting," said an eye-witness, "as the cavalry drew near Cairo. The men had been in the saddle since daybreak, under a blazing sun, and both men and horses were thoroughly exhausted; but, suffering as they were from hunger, parched with thirst, and covered with dust, they yet had strength for the remainder of their task."

There was little difficulty in accomplishing it. The city was quiet. The Egyptian soldiers surrendered in the most orderly manner.

An English civilian who that day entered Cairo with the British troops, wrote thus of what he saw there:

"No one will readily forget the impression produced on him by the seething hordes of panic-stricken natives who thronged the streets of that astonished city. They it was, be it remembered, who until the last moment had believed the boasting, vamping reports of triumphs over the English, daily published on coarse colored posters, issued in profusion by the rebel commander. . . . And now that they found English cavalry in their midst, and Indian troops camped beneath their walls, they could but pace the streets open-mouthed for days and

nights together, gazing in amazement at those strange animals, the Highlanders, and those even more fearsome objects, the Indian cavalrymen. 'You must be very glad,' I said to a young officer of Highlanders, 'to find yourself in Cairo after the discomforts of the desert.' 'My experience thus far,' he answered, 'of the blessings of civilization, is that I have slept in a gutter with my mosquito curtain hitched to a lamp-post.'"

On the 15th of September the British troops entered Cairo in triumph. For the moment the war was at an end. The British Parliament passed votes of thanks to the Army and Navy. Sir Garnet Wolseley and Admiral Seymour were raised to the peerage. The troops were accorded an enthusiastic welcome on their return home. They were reviewed by the Queen. The *Times*, in an editorial, said: "Whose heart would not swell with pride at the sight of those bronzed heroes returning home, covered with glory,—or at the tale of their noble exploits, the grand forced march which secured their position, the adroitly held outposts by which they covered the movements of other regiments, the perfect discipline which marked the whole campaign and covered the final charge with a glorious victory?"

In reality, this war of 1882 was only the beginning of the troubles of the British Government in Egypt and the Soudan. The British Government insisted on a fair trial for Arabi Pasha and the other rebel leaders. This was not according to Egyptian ethics. Riaz Pasha, to whom the task of trying the rebel ringleaders was entrusted, was shocked. Fair play to rebels! Such an idea was monstrous to him. It was almost like asking him to be accessory to a blasphemy. He gravely assured Lord Dufferin, who had been sent to Egypt as envoy of the British Government, that he knew of their guilt. What object was to be gained by further inquiry? When he found the ambassador still unconvinced, he went away mourning at the extraordinary growth of theoretical ideas. When Riaz found that the trial was going to be a simple farce, to end in the practical acquittal of the rebel prisoners, his indignation knew no bounds. In one stormy interview with Lord Dufferin his little form shook with rage. He left the house, shook the dust off his shoes, and resigned.

Arabi was convicted of treason and sentenced to banishment in Ceylon. This leniency was misunderstood by the Egyptians. The result of the interference of the British Government at the trial was that Great Britain lost, in one day, all the prestige she had gained by her victory at Tel-el-Kebir.

From 1882 to 1885 four Englishmen of note were employed by the British Government to extricate Egypt from the condition of anarchy into which she had been plunged by Ismail's exile and Arabi's rebellion—Lord Dufferin, Lord Northbrook, General Gordon, and Sir Evelyn Baring. The first three practically failed in their mission. The fourth at first effected little. But since 1885, when he has been left untrammelled to pursue his own course in the government of Egypt, it has been another thing. To his administration the marvellous recovery of a country, not only dead, but apparently given over to corruption, is due.

Further troubles were in store for the Home Government. The Mahdi had appeared in the Soudan, a region of Central Africa, partly subjective to the Khedive of Egypt. In 1883 the British Government had to send gunboats to defend the Red Sea forts. In 1884 General Gordon was sent by the British Government to the Soudan. Gordon had been in the Soudan before. In 1875, Sir Samuel Baker, shocked by horrors with which he found himself unable to cope, resigned his government of the Equatorial Provinces. Nubar Pasha, the great minister of Ismail Pasha, who had met Colonel Gordon, recommended him to the Khedive, as the only man likely at once to bring order out of anarchy in the Soudan. Gordon had achieved distinction in China, both as a diplomat and as a soldier. His success there led to his being called "Chinese" Gordon by his countrymen. Gordon governed the vast region under his control in the Soudan until 1879, when he returned to England. In 1884, as we have mentioned, he was again in the Soudan. But the British Government sadly underestimated the strength of the rebel forces. The British Government had decided to force the Khedive to abandon the Soudan. Gordon was now sent there to govern Khartoum and its vicinity till the country should be evacuated, and the British could bring away in safety the Egyptian garrison.

Osman Digna, a ruined slave-dealer, and a man of great military capacity, was at the head of a large body of the Mahdi's partisans. The Egyptian Government sent Col. Valentine Baker at the head of an army to crush Osman. In February, 1884, the opposing forces met at a place called Teb. The Arabs were victorious; the Egyptian army was exterminated. This unhappy event forced the hand of the British Government. Baker Pasha was not, it is true, an officer in its employment, but he was a British officer, and his defeat would be regarded, throughout the Mohammed world, as a triumph of the green banner of Islam

over the arms of Britain. It was an indispensable act of high policy that, in order to preserve her prestige in the East, and along with it the vast commercial interests which that prestige supported, she should overcome Osman Digna. British troops were at once dispatched to the scene. At El-Teb, near where Baker Pasha was defeated, General Gerald Graham with about 4,000 men, including the 10th and 19th Lancers, the Gordon Highlanders, the Black Watch, and others, engaged the rebels, some 12,000 strong. The rebels made a most desper-



GENERAL GORDON.

ate, nay, heroic resistance. The furious rush of the Arabs at one moment threatened disaster even to the stern Highlanders. In the end the British were victorious. The rebels were totally defeated, with the loss of over 2,000 men.

Two weeks later the rebels were again severely punished at the battle of Tamanieb. Osman Digna had a force of over 10,000 men. The British were massed in oblong squares. The rebels fought desperately. One of the British

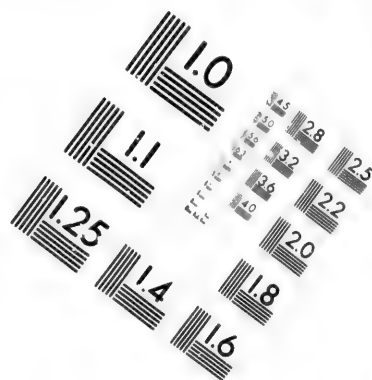
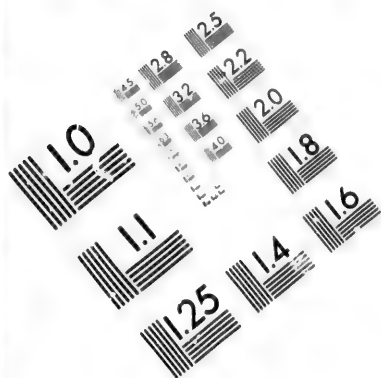
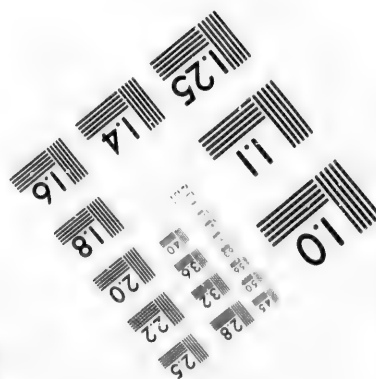
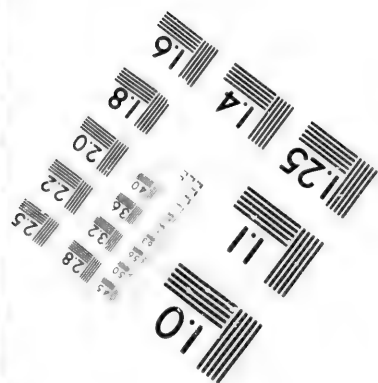
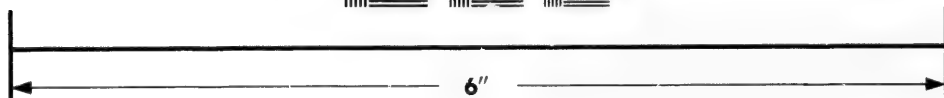
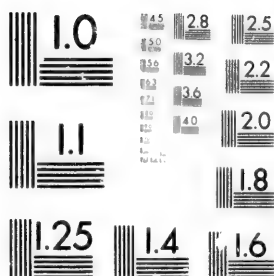


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squares was broken into by a violent onslaught of Arabs. The Arabs cut their way in, captured the gatling and other guns; a desperate hand to hand conflict ensued. Colonel Wood, with 700 cavalry, charged the Arabs in flank, causing them to waver. The British infantry then rallied, the guns were recaptured, the square was reformed, and the enemy finally completely routed. The British lost 200 men in killed and wounded; the Arabs about 2,000.

The Mahdi's influence was now to all appearance greatly broken. The Home Government, therefore, ordered the British troops to return to Egypt. At the same time it refused a request which General Gordon had made for the dispatch of two squadrons of cavalry from Suakim to Berber, to receive and protect a convoy of 2,000 women and children from Khartoum. The withdrawal of Britain's victorious army proved to be a grave error.

Gordon was soon practically besieged in Khartoum. He wrote to the Home Government urging that reinforcements be hurriedly dispatched. But the policy of the Home Government was to evacuate the Soudan; the reinforcements were not sent. By April, 1884, the whole country round Khartoum was in the Mahdi's hands. Learning that the Government declined to send reinforcements, Gordon writes to Sir Evelyn Baring: "I shall hold on here as long as I can, and if I can suppress the rebellion I will do so. If I cannot, I shall retire to the equator." But Gordon was not to be left to his fate without a protest. His position at Khartoum ceaselessly occupied the attention of the public at home. The subject was debated in Parliament. A vote of censure on Mr. Gladstone's Government for its "vacillating and inconsistent policy" in Egypt and the Soudan was carried in the Lords by 181 to 81, but rejected in the Commons by 262 votes for, to 311 against the motion. In May another vote of censure was moved, but negatived—275 for, 303 against the motion. Later news from the Soudan and the clamor of public opinion caused the Government to make preparations for Gordon's rescue by a British expedition, as soon as the cool season in the Soudan would allow military operations to be carried on with safety. British troops for the relief expedition arrived at Wady-Halfa, on the Nile, in August. In September came telegrams from Gordon asking for assistance. Later on more encouraging news was received from him.

It may be said without exaggeration that the British public have never followed any expedition with deeper interest than that which laboriously made its way up the Nile to the rescue of Gordon. There was a strange romance about it

which appealed to the popular imagination—Egypt is a land of so many mysteries, and of such associations with the past; to the Nile itself attaches a charm of which no one can be unconscious. An expedition up the great river of Egypt must always have appealed to the sensibilities of the people; but with what special force when its object was the release of one of the noblest Englishmen of his age—a hero without guile—who had obtained an enduring place in the national affections!

Universal was the sorrow when it was known that the expedition had failed in its object—that the heroic Gordon was dead—that the Mahdi reigned in Khartoum, which had fallen on the 26th of January, 1885. The British Government now reaped the reward of its penny-wise, pound-foolish policy.



THE MAHDI.

For a long time Britain refused to believe the news of the death of Gordon. There was no clear account of his death; he might have escaped, he might have gone south in disguise and joined Emin Bey near the equator. Some years later a newspaper correspondent published the narrative of a Greek who was in Khartoum when it

was taken, and who escaped in the disguise of one of the Mahdi's dervishes:

"I was at Khartoum the night it was taken. The Nile had gone down so that part of Khartoum was open. That night Faragh Pasha, in whom Gordon had entire confidence, treacherously removed his troops out of the way."

"Do you believe," the narrator was asked, "that if the British had arrived three days earlier Khartoum would have fallen?" The man replied:

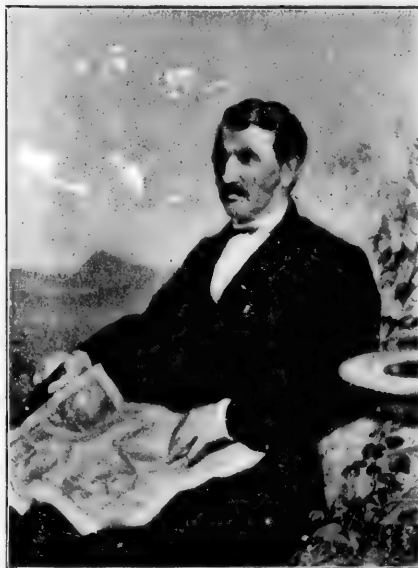
"If the British, or even a few of them, had arrived one hour before the attack the place would not have been taken, and the troops would have fought to the

last. Faragh had sent word to the Mahdi: 'Unless you attack to-night all is lost.' In that night all was blood and flame. The city passed over from the command of Gordon to that of the Mahdi. It was a dire—a dreadful night. I shall remember it to my dying day. The air smelt of blood. I had a Mahdi uniform given to me by an Arab friend. I hastened to put it on. Seeing me in the uniform some Arabs rushed in and ordered me to the Government House, where, they said, all the Arab officers of the Mahdi had gone to kill Gordon Pasha. I saw Gordon Pasha smoking a cigarette on the balcony facing the river. We had entered the courtyard from the back. The gate was smashed in. With Gordon was standing the Doctor Giorgio Demetrio and the Greek consul. Five hundred dervishes, who had been sent by the Mahdi with especial orders to take Gordon Pasha alive, stood at the foot of the staircase. I went up the stairs, being pushed up by the men below who were vociferating, 'Gordon Pasha! Gordon Pasha!' Gordon coolly left the balcony. 'Fly,' said his two friends; 'fly while there is yet time. Go in at the little door, and take the little boat!' 'Shall I fly and leave my post?' Gordon replied, indignantly. 'That would indeed be a disgrace. I shall not fly.' He then went into his inner room and put on his full uniform and sword. Then came he forth grandly. He drew himself up to his full height. 'Whom seek ye?' he asked, gazing on the sea of fierce angry faces of dervishes he saw below, and hearing the clamor of their angry voices. 'Gordon Pasha!' they cried aloud. 'You want him—do you?' he replied. On his visage was a look of scorn. 'I am he. Come up hither.' Again Giorgio Demetrio and the Greek consul urged him to fly, but he spurned their advice, crying, 'Shame! Would you have me abandon my post ignominiously?' He could easily have escaped at the rear. I have said before that the dervishes were ordered not to kill Gordon, but to stay in the courtyard. In fact, they had been ordered to kill no one in the palace. There were five hundred of them. They hoisted their flag over the gate. So it came to pass that those dervishes still remained below while Gordon Pasha stood in a bold attitude at the head of the staircase. Then came up some of the Mahdi's generals,—one Nasr, and another, nephew of a dervish of distinction. The dervishes allowed them to pass, seeing they were men in authority. They ascended the stairs and asked for the Pasha. Gordon met them, saying: 'I am Gordon Pasha.' He then handed them his sword in military fashion, intimating that he knew they had taken the place, and that consequently he surrendered, according to the rules of war. But Nasr

snatched hold of his sword; at the same moment, in a brutal and most cowardly fashion, he struck Gordon an unexpected blow. The Pasha would have, of course, fought desperately to the last had he not thought he would be treated in an honorable manner. He fell, and rolled down the stairs, and as he rolled another general speared him in the left side. It was a grievous wound. Thus died Gordon. I was there, a spectator of the ghastly deed. I got out of the way as he rolled down the stairs. Now, when Hadji el Zobeir, the Mahdi's treasurer, saw these things, and what had befallen Gordon, he was sorely vexed, and drawing near, cried out:

'Wallah! have they killed thee? May Allah require thy blood at their hands! May thy blood be upon their heads! May Allah punish them!'

"Some say that Gordon was cut up in little pieces; others that they embalmed his body, and sent it to the Mahdi. There were bodies cut up, but I am



DAVID LIVINGSTONE.

in his life of Sir Bartle Frere, says that Frere had followed Gordon's career with keen interest and sympathy, as that of a man who, like Livingstone, was a heaven-born messenger of peace and good-will to uncivilized races. Frere when at the Cape had asked for Gordon's services as a pacificator and civilizer of the natives. Gordon was not sent there then. Later, in 1882, he was appointed Commandant-General of the Colonial forces in South Africa, and thus brought into close relations with the Basutos, with whom hostilities were going on intermittently. With his usual success, he was rapidly gaining an extraordinary in-

inclined to believe they were the bodies of the consul and the doctor, not Gordon's. The blacks fought bravely, but when they saw that all was over they surrendered and were made prisoners. The Arabs took one day massacring the Egyptian soldiers, but they spared the regiments that let them in."

John Martineau

fluence over them ; but before he had held his command many months he was driven to resign it by an act of the Cape Government, which in his view was wanting in good faith towards them. In January, 1884, he was sent to Khartoum, to the scene of his former command from 1875 to 1880, to effect the safe evacuation of the Soudan by the Egyptian civilians and soldiers. The story is too recent to need repeating. The British Government refused to sanction the measures which he told them were essential to success and to the safety of those whom he had come to rescue, and listened to advice from the Anti-Slavery Society, and from any other source rather than from their own chosen and devoted officer, who alone was competent and in a position to give it. His task was thus made hopeless. Abandoned and cut off from communication with the world outside, he remained at his post at Khartoum through long, weary months, and in the end laid down his life, a sacrifice to his duty and to the neglect of his country's Government.

Apprehensive that the Mahdi's success might encourage him to advance northward, and expose Upper Egypt to invasion, the British Ministry sent reinforcements in order that, when the hot season was over, Wolseley might prosecute the necessary measures for the recovery of Khartoum and the suppression of the rebellion.

The reinforcements left England in February. For three months there was much fighting with the rebels. By May most of the British troops had returned home. But to this day the Soudan has continued to be a source of worry and expense to the British Government.

A pleasing instance of "blood being thicker than water" is related by Major-General Molyneux. The British fleet was entering the Suez Canal. As the great vessels steamed ahead, they passed the ships of war of other nations. "It was a stately sight and might have done some of the grumblers at home good to see. The Frenchmen were mute, and so, of course, were the Turks and Egyptians ; but the Italians gave us a cheer, and when we got abreast of the Americans, blood proved itself thicker than water, and they gave us such ringing rounds of applause that it seemed as if it would not have taken much to make them join us."

The fundamental maxim of the Chinese in their intercourse with foreigners has been thus translated : "The barbarians are like beasts, and not to be governed on the same principles as citizens. Were any one to attempt controlling them

by the great maxims of reason, it would tend to nothing but confusion. The ancient kings well understood this, and accordingly ruled barbarians by misrule. Therefore, to rule barbarians by misrule is the true and best way of ruling them."

Not until about 1634 did the English (barbarians) obtain a footing at Canton. Some years later they opened a precarious trade at Ningpo. The whole history of foreign commerce with China, up to 1840, is a melancholy and curious chapter in the course of international events. Instead of treaties and embassies, which usually constitute national dealings with a great people, there were negotiations with petty mandarins or provincial authorities.

On the 22nd of April, 1834, the trade of the East India Company with China, after having continued just two hundred years, terminated according to the provisions of "the new act." The British Government, deeming the change about to be inaugurated one of great importance, concluded to place the control of affairs in the hands of a commission of experienced men. The King, therefore, appointed the Right Hon. Lord Napier chief superintendent of British trade. He arrived at Macao, July 15th, 1834. Having been instructed to *report himself* by letter at Canton, Lord Napier made an attempt to do so, but the officials declined to receive his communication.

Lord Napier was not to be so easily set aside. He issued a letter to the Chinese: "The merchants of Great Britain wish to trade with all China on principles of mutual benefit; they will never relax in their exertions till they gain a point of equal importance to both countries, and the Viceroy will find it as easy to stop the current of Canton River as to carry into effect the insane determination of the Hong."

His efforts to open trade with China did not, however, meet with much success. The Chinese continued to regard the white barbarians with distrust.

In March, 1839, complications arose which led to the Opium War. Captain Eliot, the British commander, issued a proclamation in the name and on the behalf of her Britannic Majesty's Government requiring all her Majesty's subjects in Canton forthwith to make a surrender to him for the service of her said Majesty's Government, to be delivered over to the Government of China, all of the opium under their respective control, and to hold the British ships and vessels engaged in the opium trade subject to his immediate direction, and to forward him without delay a sealed list of all the British-owned opium in their respective possession.

The immediate cause of the war was the refusal of the Chinese Government to permit opium to be imported, declaring that it ruined the health and morals of the Chinese people. Opium cannot be raised in China; it is raised in India, and the Government has the monopoly of the opium factories.

Lord Palmerston professed to think that the moral ground taken by the Chinese Government was a pretext for destroying British commerce with China, and injuring the revenues of the English Government.

The next day 20,283 chests of opium were duly tendered to Eliot. The latter referred to Peking for orders concerning its disposition. He was commanded by the Emperor to destroy the whole in the presence of the civil and military officers, the inhabitants of the coast, and the foreigners, "that they may know and tremble thereat." The destruction was effected in the most thorough manner, by mixing it with lime and salt water in trenches, and then drawing off the mixture into an adjacent creek at low tide. Every precaution was taken to prevent any purloining of the precious drug: one man was summarily executed for attempting to carry away a small quantity. Thus perished an amount of property rated at the cost price of nearly eleven million of dollars.

The British Government was bound to reimburse its own subjects for the loss they had sustained in the destruction of their property. Captain Eliot suggested that the Chinese pay for it. The Chinese refused the request. They suggested that the British, having destroyed the opium, should pay for it. An appeal to arms was inevitable.

At this juncture a new plenipotentiary, Sir Henry Pottinger, with Admiral Sir William Parker, arrived direct from England to assume control of affairs.

Conflicts between the British and Chinese followed.

At length, on the 29th of August, 1842, a treaty of peace was signed before Nanking, embracing the following articles of stipulation: 1. Lasting peace between the two empires. 2. The Chinese Government to pay twenty-one million dollars,—twelve million being for the expenses of the war, three million for debts due the English merchants, and six million for the opium. 3. The ports of Canton, Amoy, Foo-chow, Ningpo, and Shanghai, to be thrown open to British trade and residence, and the trade to be conducted according to a well understood tariff. 4. The Island of Hong-kong to be ceded to the Queen. 5. All British prisoners to be unconditionally released. 6. All Chinese in the service of the English to be pardoned and held guiltless. 7. Correspondence hereafter to be

conducted on terms of perfect equality. 8. When the treaty receives the Emperor's assent, and six million dollars were paid, the English forces were to be withdrawn from the river and the places occupied, but Chu-san and Ku-lang-su were to be occupied until all the provisions of the treaty are executed.

The indemnity of twenty-one million dollars was sent to England by the Chinese Government, in due course. This vast sum was paid in silver. When unloaded from the vessel, it filled five wagons. There was considerable curiosity exhibited as the five wagons, each drawn by four horses and escorted by a detachment of the Sixtieth Regiment, passed through the streets of London on their way to the Mint.

This treaty was signed on board the *Cornwallis*. Ratification of the treaty, signed by Queen Victoria and the Emperor of China, was formally exchanged the 22nd of July, 1843. Three days later Canton was opened to the British.

The non-fulfilment of the treaty led gradually to the war of 1856-57.

In 1856, a British ship was boarded by Chinese, its crew made prisoners, and the national ensign taken down. Reprisals followed. There was war for a year and a half. In June, 1858, a treaty of peace was signed at Tien-tsin.

The negotiations of Tien-tsin may justly be regarded as the second or third epochal event in the modern history of China. It was the beginning of a new order of influences destined to extend over Eastern Asia, and to affect in many ways the most venerable of human institutions. An article allowing the profession of Christianity by the natives of China was introduced into each treaty, although the code of the empire had for many years made the acceptance of a new and strange religion a capital offence. Various points were discussed and adopted by which new and important advantages were secured to traders. These included the opening up for foreign residence and purposes of commerce two new ports on the island of Formosa, with the cities of Swa-tau, Che-foo, Tien-tsin, one city in Manchooria, and three on the Yang-tsz-Kiang. The Chinese with all their subtle art sought to avoid concessions. Lord Elgin exerted a leading influence in the various conferences, and preserved a very determined and authoritative bearing. It was said that "a mere hint of proceeding to Peking was sufficient to take the most doubtful clauses through the perils of diplomacy." The Chinese were ill-prepared to defend their capital, while the British were armed, aggressive and confident.

The Emperor refused to ratify the Tien-tsin Treaty. Hostilities were renewed. The British and French forces advanced on Peking.

Robert Swinhoe, staff inspector to Sir Hope Grant, in his "Narrative of the North China Campaign," says that in this war "the Tartars undoubtedly fought like brave men, hurling down all kinds of uncouth missiles at the storming party, and when our troops had effected an entrance every inch of the ground inside the fort was disputed." But he is inclined to think that the bravery of the enemy was very much the result of despair; by blocking the assailants out they had pretty effectually blocked themselves in. He further says: "The fearless conduct, however, of the Cantonese coolies in our lines excited considerable admiration. They seemed to enjoy the fun and shouted with glee at every good shot that carried a murderous mission, no matter whether it committed havoc among the enemy or bowled over our unfortunate fellows; and those in French employ were conspicuous in the front assisting the troops and standing up to their necks in the ditches holding ladders over their heads to enable the men to cross. All this, it will be argued, shows no lack of pluck in the Chinese character when opportunity is given for its demonstration; but we must not forget that the people from whom these corps were taken were mostly thieves or pirates hardened to deeds of blood, and depending largely upon such acts for their maintenance." "Many of the officers," he says, "maintained that if the Chinese were drilled and led they would make excellent soldiers. This I do not attempt to gainsay, knowing, as all must know, how many of the Asiatics and instinctively cowardly races, as the Bengalese and Turks, have turned out under such treatment."

On the allies approaching Peking, the Emperor fled.

Peking was finally reached and invested on the 6th of October, 1860. On the 12th inst. the city surrendered.

In the afternoon of the day of the surrender, several prisoners were restored to the allies in a fearfully emaciated condition. The bodies of a number of other captives who had died in the hands of their enemies were also surrendered, among them being the remains of Mr. Bowlby, the ill-fated correspondent of the *London Times*. The sad fate of their countrymen, who had doubtless perished from the cruelty and neglect that too often mark the conduct of the Chinese toward their prisoners of war, aroused great indignation in the British camp. Had it not been for the fact that Sir Hope Grant had given his word that Peking would be spared if the principal gate was immediately surrendered, the consequences of this state of feeling, which was shared alike by the men and the chief

officers of the army, might have been terrible to that city. Lord Elgin determined, as the most that could be accomplished under the circumstances, to level his Majesty's rural retreat to the ground, and to insist on compensation for the bereaved friends of the deceased to the amount of 300,000 taels, or about five hundred thousand dollars.

On the 24th of October, 1860, Lord Elgin, on behalf of the British Government, entered the An-ting gate in his green sedan chair, carried by sixteen coolies in scarlet livery, his staff on horseback on either side. He proceeded to the Hall of Ceremonies, attended by a procession of infantry and cavalry, forming altogether a force of eight thousand men. The line of march lay through one of the principal streets of the city. The Chinese had mustered in large numbers to witness this display of the British army. After marching about one mile the long column halted before a gate over which was written, in conspicuous letters, "Board of Ceremonies." Passing through this gate into a large courtyard, Lord Elgin found Prince Kung and numberless mandarins already in waiting in the open hall, standing at the farther end. As his lordship advanced up the avenue inside the gate, between the opened ranks of his troops, they presented arms, and the band saluted him with the national air. Advancing to the seat of honor, he motioned the prince to take the lower seat on the right, while Sir Hope Grant assumed a position on his left. From the chair of the commander-in-chief, and ranging behind a row of tables down the hall, sat and stood the inferior English officers: behind similar tables on the right were ranged native princes and mandarins of every button. The attachés and interpreters of the embassy stood behind his lordship and Sir Hope Grant, at a central table whereon were placed dispatch-boxes, paper, and other necessary official apparatus. The prince had standing by him three mandarins of rank.

The preliminaries having been arranged, the High Commissioners proceeded to ratify the treaty of Tsen-tsin. Two articles which had not been proposed in that convention were admitted—legalizing coolie emigration and ceding to her Majesty's Government the Peninsula of Kow-loon, opposite Hong-Kong.

The allies left Peking on the 5th of November, 1860. For the moment there was peace.

On Saturday, June 27, 1896, a monument to perpetuate the memory of the officers and men who fell in the North-West Rebellion of 1885 was unveiled at

Toronto. The North-West Field Force, which so quickly suppressed the Rebellion, was commanded by Major-General Sir Fred. Middleton, C. B. The monument is situated at the junction of Grosvenor Street with the Queen's Park. It was erected through the indefatigable energy of a band of some 40 ladies, headed by Mrs. Josephine Fletcher. The volunteers of the city turned out in full force for this historic ceremony. The city regiments paraded at the Armoury. Lieut.-Col. G. T. Denison was in command of the Governor-



MAJOR-GENERAL SIR FRED. MIDDLETON, C. B.,
Commander-in-Chief, North-West Field Force, '885.

General's Body Guard, 250 strong. The troop of Royal Canadian Dragoons was also present. The Queen's Own Rifles, under the command of Major Delamere, paraded 288 strong. The Royal Grenadiers, under the command of Lieut.-Colonel Mason, paraded 251 strong. The 48th Highlanders, under the command of Lieut.-Col. Davidson, paraded 222 strong. No. 2 Company Canadian Infantry (regulars) paraded under the command of Lieut. Thacker. Lieut.-Col. Otter, D.A.G., was in command of the brigade, with Lieut.-Col. Buchan as field officer.

The veterans of 1885 paraded 110 strong. They each wore their North-West

medals. Major Harston took command of the parade, and Capt. Curran acted as adjutant.

The troops marched from the Armoury to the park, the Cavalry leading, followed by the Queen's Own, the Grenadiers, and the Highlanders. On arriving at the monument the infantry was massed in quarter column on the west side of the enclosure, the Cavalry and the Canadian Infantry on the east side.

The ceremony of unveiling the monument was performed by the Lieut.-Governor, Hon. George A. Kirkpatrick. As the folds of the flag that draped the graceful figure fell away, a mighty cheer rose from the multitude of people assembled.

In handing over the monument to Mayor Fleming for the city, his Honor said: "I am desired by the committee having in charge the work of erecting this monument to hand it over to you, sir, as Chief Magistrate of the city of Toronto, and to request that the city may take and keep it in their charge as a tribute to the bravery of her citizen soldiers, and as a memorial to those who gave up their lives for their country."

The figure, which surmounts a handsome pedestal of Canadian granite, is cast in bronze, and represents a beautiful woman, clad in a long robe, the shoulders and arms bare. The figure is symbolical of Canada. The right hand, uplifted, holds an olive branch, emblematic of peace. The left hand commands silence, and a heavy sword, encased in a scabbard, is suspended from a large sword-belt looped across the figure. At the feet of the figure is a cluster of maple leaves, drooping over the pedestal.

On the pedestal are bronze plates giving the names of those killed in action. On the south side the plate bears the following inscription:

KILLED IN ACTION:

Royal Canadian Artillery—Gunner De Manolly.

Royal Canadian Artillery—Gunner Cook.

Royal Canadian Artillery—Gunner Phillips.

Infantry School Corps—Bugler Foulkes.

Governor-General's Foot Guards—Pte. Osgoode.

Governor-General's Foot Guards—Pte. Rogers.

10th Royal Grenadiers—Lieut. Fitch.

10th Royal Grenadiers—Pte. Moore.

90th Battalion Rifles—Pte. Ferguson.

90th Battalion Rifles—Pte. Hutchinson.

90th Battalion Rifles—Pte. Wheeler.

90th Battalion Rifles—Pte. Ennis.

90th Battalion Rifles—Pte. Hardisty.

90th Battalion Rifles—Pte. Fraser.

Boulton's Scouts—Capt. Brown.

French's Scouts—Capt. French.

Intelligence Corps—Lieut. Kippen.

North-West Mounted Police—Corporal Sleigh.

North-West Mounted Police—Constable Cowan.

North-West Mounted Police—Constable Gibson.

North-West Mounted Police—Constable Elliott.

Battleford Rifles—Pte. Dobs.

On the north side another plate bears the names of others killed in action, viz. :

Prince Albert Volunteers—Capt. John Morton.

Prince Albert Volunteers—Corp. W. Napier.

Prince Albert Volunteers—Pte. S. C. Elliott.

Prince Albert Volunteers—Pte. D. McPhail.

Prince Albert Volunteers—Pte. D. McKenzie.

Prince Albert Volunteers—Pte. J. Bakie.

Prince Albert Volunteers—Pte. R. Middleton.

Prince Albert Volunteers—Pte. J. Anderson.

Prince Albert Volunteers—Pte. A. Fisher.

On this plate is also a list of those who died of wounds. It bears these

names :

Royal Canadian Artillery—Gunner Arnsworth.

Royal Canadian Artillery—Gunner Charpentier.

Infantry School Corps—Pte. Watson.

Boulton's Scouts—Trooper D'Arcy Baker.

90th Battalion Rifles—Lieut. Swinford.

90th Battalion Rifles—Corp. Code.

North-West Mounted Police—Corp. Lowry.

North-West Mounted Police—Constable Arnold.

North-West Mounted Police—Constable Garrett.

North-West Mounted Police—Constable Burke.



NORTHWEST VOLUNTEER MONUMENT, QUEEN'S PARK, TORONTO.

On the four angles of the pedestal are piled four cannon balls. On a square tablet on the north-east is inscribed the legend "Cut Knife Creek," on the north-west corner another tablet with "Duck Lake," on the south-west "Fish Creek." The coats-of-arms of the various regiments that took part in the different engagements are ranged about the circular top of the pedestal underneath the feet of the statue. The figure faces Grosvenor-street, and on that side of the square part of the plinth is the coat-of-arms of the Dominion. Just above this is a war trophy of pistols, tomahawks, arrows and war-clubs. The pistols were modelled from a pair owned by the late Capt. Andrew Maxwell Irving. Just above the trophy is another plate, bearing the inscription :

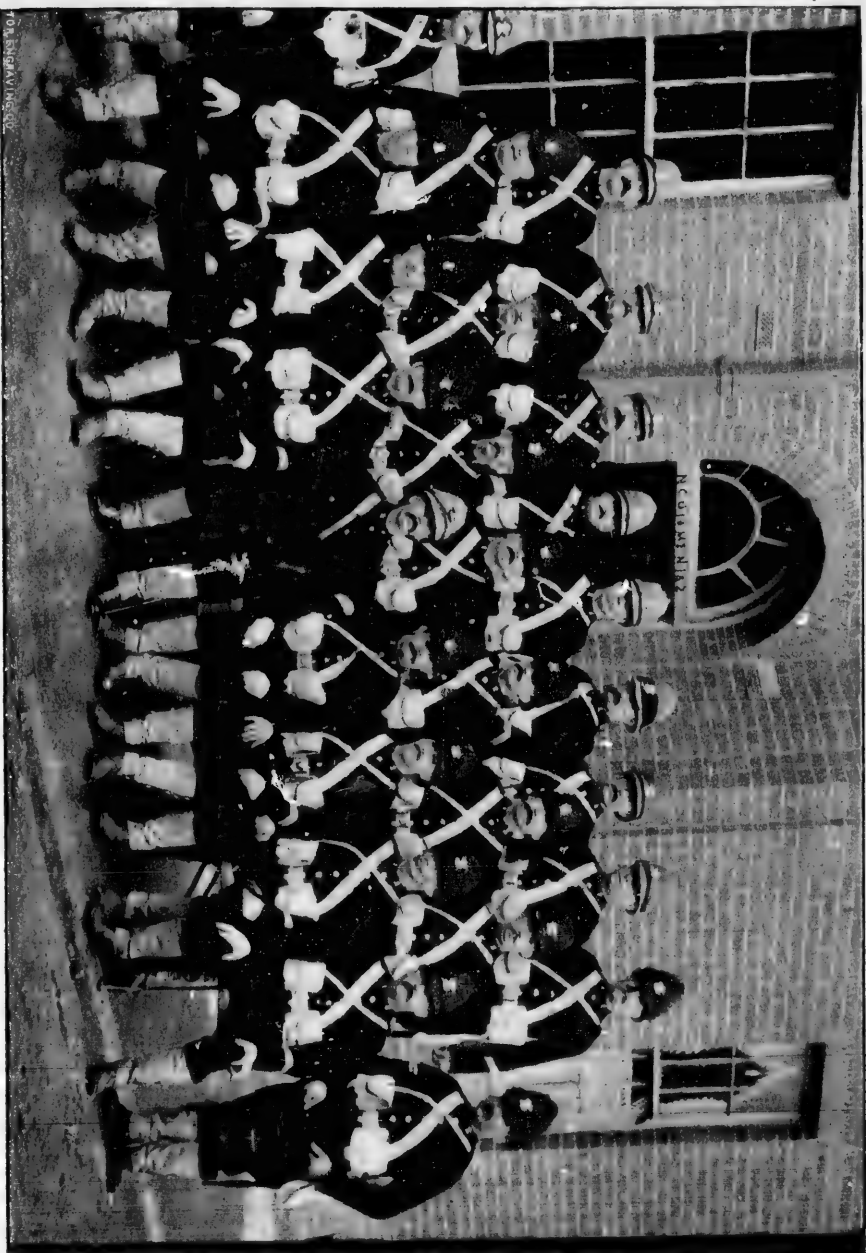
ERECTED
TO THE MEMORY OF THE OFFICERS AND MEN
WHO FELL
ON THE BATTLEFIELDS OF THE
NORTH-WEST IN 1885.

" Dulce et Decorum est pro patria mori."

Mr. Walter S. Allvard, a young Toronto artist, was the sculptor. He modelled the figure in clay, the idea of Mr. J. Wilson Gray.

In 1895, King Prempeh, of Ashanti, continuing to evade the terms of the treaty of 1874, an ultimatum was sent requiring him to receive a British Resident, pay the money he owed, abolish human sacrifices, and remove hindrances to legitimate trade. The ultimatum was followed by a military expedition. So carefully had everything been prepared that Coomassie was reached and occupied without firing a shot. The King was carried away a prisoner. A Resident was installed. A fort was built. The work begun twenty-two years before by Lord Wolseley was completed. The civilizing sovereignty of Great Britain was established on the ruins of one of the bloodiest and most barbarous of African Kingdoms.

On another page we give a photograph of the detachment of Canada's Own Corps, Her Majesty's 100th Royal Canadian Regiment, with the Ashanti Expedition in West Africa. Following are the names of the detachment: Major H. P. Northcote, in command; Sergeant Hayes, F. Co.; Corporal Grace, F. Co.; Corporal Kennedy, F. Co.; Privates Jackson, Neil, and Swift, A. Co.; Private McDonald, B. Co.; Privates Brown, Courtney, McCabe, Curney, Reilly, Sullivan,



THE DETACHMENT OF CANADA'S OWN CORPS, HER MAJESTY'S 100TH ROYAL CANADIANS,
With the Ashanti Expedition in West Africa.

C. Co. ; Privates Dilaney, Dunne, Walsh, Smith, D. Co. ; Privates Colgan, McLaughlin, Hutchinson, E. Co. ; Privates Ryan, Hill, Kelly, Green, Norman, F. Co.

Just as there are two sides to a shield, so there are two sides from which war may be viewed. The poet has said

Ah, war ! It is a glorious thing, but a deadly thing as well.
One side it wears as bright as light, and one as black as hell.

True, too true ! At Gravelotte the cannon-balls did not fly in the air like birds ; they struck, thud after thud, into bleeding flesh ; every stroke hit its mark. It was a busy day. In twenty hours, 33,000 men were murdered or mutilated.

In the common graves of the last Franco-German war the fallen were laid in five to six layers, only just below the surface. They formed a mile-wide stinking mass of human carcasses, filthy viscous putrefaction, pieces of uniforms, and mess which had to be burnt to prevent its breeding a pestilence. Not exactly an evidence of noble-minded or refined respect for the memory of fallen heroes !

Artists have done much to depict the horrors of war. But no artist has depicted such a scene as took place at the stone quarries at Juamont, there, while Bazaine was fighting with the Prussians, Gen. Canrobert smashed with cannon the pillars left to support the excavation over which the unconscious Prussian army had taken up its position. Twenty thousand men, mingled with horses, cannon and weapons, with one fearful yell collapsed into the yawning gulf. There was no time to take out the bodies singly and bury them. The Prussians hired certain Belgians to cover with sand and earth the human pile, whence for four days sobs and moans were heard to issue.

The shelling of towns results in horrible carnage. In the Franco-German war a town was shelled. It was found the day after the contest that out of 8,000 inhabitants over 2,500 were killed or made prisoners.

Is it not known that when explosive projectiles are shot into a town, women and children will be struck ; and is it a mitigating circumstance that artillery is now used, whose projectiles, if they fall on a school, church, or hospital, will kill the whole crowd of defenceless people ? Leave off talking about humane war ; humane massacre ! Say the truth as Napoleon did, when he exclaimed : " I don't care a fig for a million of men."

Imagine, if possible, the awful scenes at the bombardment of Constantinople,

when for weeks and weeks hundreds of bellowing cannon turned the fortress into a veritable hell.

One who was present at the battle of Sadowa, where 30,000 men were left on the field dead or piteously wounded, thus describes the scene: "In my ears sounded continually the thundering roar of thousands of guns, mingling with cries from innumerable human throats. I heard the groans of the wounded, the rattle of the dying; desperate shrieks of thousands of victims, sunk to the last depths of undeserved misery. I saw in all directions staring eyes, wide open, livid, convulsed, twisted mouths, chests pierced through, smashed skulls, quivering limbs, heaps of corpses, streams of blood. . . . I wept with despair, and cursed the man who could commit such an unpardonable crime as to foment a war between two nations."

After one of the engagements in the China War, in a cemetery where the carcasses of horses and their lifeless riders were mingled in promiscuous and deadly confusion, a British officer discovered a solitary native who presented a fitting type of the horrors and desolations of war. The unfortunate man, emaciated and quite bereft of sense, no doubt through wounds and starvation, was plucking up the grass by handfuls and eating it. The officer spoke to him, and tried to get him off the place. In reply he returned a vacant stare and shrieked menacingly, and the narrator left him sitting like a spectre among the dead.

Do we comprehend what is meant when we read: In such a battle were killed 10,000, 20,000, 40,000 men? Besides the miseries inflicted on those who took part in it, think of the anxiety and strain in all those homes, on both sides; and, later on, of the affliction in all the bereaved families under the terrible certainty over which they will weep for long years.

'Tis the day after a great battle. Twilight comes and it grows dark. The dead and wounded lie like sheaves upon the plain. Some simple-hearted peasant asks: "But why were all those men killed?" A deep earnestness demanding an answer underlies this question. For is it not a shame?

The Franco-German War cost, according to moderate estimates, eight billions—eight thousand millions—of dollars. The greatest marvels of industry—the Suez Canal, the Mont Cenis Tunnel, the Pacific Railway, the Panama Railway, the Panama Canal, the Andes Railway—works which have brought continents and kingdoms a thousand miles nearer one another, which have brought blessings and prosperity with them—have cost *together* only 500 millions—half a billion—of dollars.

The contemplation of episodes such as these has filled the breasts of well-intentioned people with indignation and with sorrow. Peace Societies have, therefore, been active for many years. They realize that the dazzling external show of war conceals from many its inner reality. This applies not only to the horrors of the battle-field and their ghastly accompaniments, but to the terrible financial drain which wars entail. In Great Britain, they point to the estimated total loss of life, and the expense incurred by the British and Indian Governments in the big and little wars of the Victorian era.

	<i>Estimated Lives Lost.</i>	<i>Estimated Cost in Millions of Dollars.</i>
Afghanistan Campaigns of 1841-42	30,000	100
Afghanistan Campaigns of 1878-80	10,000	140
Abyssinian Expedition of 1867	4,000	50
Crimean War of 1854-56	750,000	225
Egyptian Campaigns of 1882-85	10,000	150
Maori Wars of 1860-63	5,000	30
Zulu War of 1879	5,000	25
Ashantee War of 1873-74	2,000	5
Other small Wars	2,000	5
	<hr/> 818,000	<hr/> 730

Peace Societies say, with reason, that the legal murder of over three-quarters of a million combatants, of various nationalities, at a cost to one nation alone of 730 millions of dollars, is but poor evidence of advancing civilization.

Have we not heard, do we not hate, that story of the Russian mother who, in terror for her own life, threw out her little screaming children, one after another, to a howling pack of wolves? An awful story, truly!

Do you hate war in the same way? This is a feature of its first law; only with this difference, that it casts out thousands of men to devouring death.

In the beginning of this century, there were in Corsica and other places both *blood-feuds*—wars between man and man; *armed peace*—in many country towns people could only go about in armed companies; and *fortifications*—that is, private houses with loopholes. People look down upon that sort of thing now! Why should people not look down on blood-feuds and armed peace between nations?

Peace Societies say that war desolates the life of the individual and the life of the community; therefore, they declare war against war, and blood revenge and plunder between nations.

They call on all who have the interests of civilization at heart to assist them to root out the desire for robbery, murder and revenge between nations, just as civilization has succeeded in stigmatizing murder and blood feuds between individuals and social interests.

This is a very desirable Utopia; but it is rather visionary at the present moment. Indeed it will be well to remember that some sacrifice is occasionally demanded in order to prevent a greater catastrophe.

Had Gordon been given a few regiments for the Soudan in 1885, much of the subsequent carnage and expense would undoubtedly have been avoided.

Ellenborough was massing troops to be in readiness when a Sikh war should break out in India, when he was suddenly recalled by the Home Government. Hardinge was appointed to succeed him in 1844, with instructions to carry out a policy of peace at almost any price. Ellenborough saw, what the Home Government did not see, that the Asiatic mind never conceives that any motive but fear can prevent an enemy or a lukewarm friend from taking an advantage. The peace policy, which succeeded the vigorous measures of Ellenborough, was set down by the Sikhs to dread of their warlike prowess. The Afghans had successfully resisted the British; why not the Sikhs? The result was an outbreak for which the British were totally unprepared; and which was only quelled after a frightful sacrifice of life and an enormous expenditure of money.

At the same time much may be done by arbitration, especially between civilized states. Indeed much has already been done. Switzerland has been declared by the Powers to be a neutral state. The permanent neutralization of Belgium has also been confirmed. In 1887 the neutralization of the Suez Canal was confirmed. That important channel of communication became at all times inviolate. Most of the great powers are looking more and more to arbitration as a likely solution of international disputes. Great Britain has been foremost in this respect, as she is in every movement looking to the advancement of the race. May the good work go on apace. Let us, if possible, have peace. Not peace at any price; but peace with honor.

CHAPTER XI.

Royal Visits to the Queen.

King Leopold—Frederick William IV.—Louis Philippe—Napoleon III.—Victor Emmanuel—The Sultan—The Shah of Persia—The Czar of Russia—Other Notabilities.

IN the list of Royal and notable visitors to the Queen the name of Leopold, King of the Belgians, is of very frequent occurrence. Uncle to both the Queen and the Prince Consort, Leopold took an almost fatherly interest in his young relatives. To him more than to any other their happy marriage was indirectly due. He was consulted at every turn of their fortunes, from the management of a Prime Minister to the selection of a governess for the Royal infants. His never-failing good temper, prudence, and sagacity rendered him invaluable both as a counsellor and as a friend. His was a remarkable history. Born one of the obscurest of the numberless "German Lairdies," he married, in 1816, the daughter of George IV., heiress of the Crown of Great Britain. That unhappy Princess dying in childbirth, his career seemed to have come to an end.

But he was to have the refusal of two crowns. Greece having won its independence, its sovereignty was offered by the powers to Leopold, and declined. In 1830 a revolution broke out in Brussels; Belgium was separated from the Kingdom of the Netherlands; Prince Leopold was elected king of the new nation. After careful consideration he accepted the election. In the following year he, who had been the husband of the heiress of Great Britain, married the eldest daughter of the King of the French. Nor did his remarkable family connections end with this. By a double marriage his children were allied to the Imperial House of Hapsburg; his son, the present king, married the Archduchess Marie; his daughter married the then heir-apparent to the throne of Austria-Hungary, the ill-fated Prince Rudolph. By other marriages of his children he became allied to the reigning houses of Prussia and Saxony.

As a king Leopold was a conspicuous success. Of personal ambition he had little. He was almost ostentatiously indifferent to his position as king. He allowed his people to see that if he reigned it was more in their interest than in his own. More than once he nipped a growing revolution in the bud by calmly

offering to abdicate. The tact and wisdom which he displayed during his reign of more than thirty years gave him great influence in Europe. His son Leopold II. has several times visited her Majesty. His visits to London, paid *incognito*, have been more frequent, though less edifying.

In 1842 Frederick William IV., King of Prussia, came to England to act as one of the sponsors at the baptism of the Prince of Wales. Lady Bloomfield thus describes his appearance: "The King of Prussia has just arrived. Several messen-



OSBORNE HOUSE, ISLE OF WIGHT.

gers, at stated intervals, gave notice of his coming. We were all waiting in the corridor rather more than forty minutes. The Queen came in for a quarter-of-an-hour. As soon as the carriage was in sight the Queen waited on the staircase, and when it arrived her Majesty went to the door, kissed the King twice, and made him two low curtsies. I was close behind, within the doorway, and saw the meeting beautifully. It was very interesting, but soon over. The King (Frederick William IV.) is of middle size, rather fat, with an excellent countenance,

and a paucity of hair." After the baptism his Majesty was installed Knight of the Garter. "The installation of the Garter took place as soon as we returned to the Castle. Only the Mistress of the Robes and the lady-in-waiting were in actual attendance on the Queen; but we remained in the next room, and as the doors were open we saw the whole ceremony. The oath is very fine, and the King of Prussia seemed much impressed by it, and clasped his hands fervently as if he felt every word. After the Queen had buckled on the Garter and given the Ribbon, his Majesty shook hands all round with the knights, and then the ceremony concluded. There was a little dance last night for young Prince Leopold of Saxe-Coburg's amusement. There were only just enough ladies to make up a quadrille. The Queen danced the first with the King of Prussia. Although he is rather stout he danced very well and gracefully. We finished with a country dance, with every sort of strange figure. I think the Queen must have been studying some old books, and concentrated the figures of several centuries into this one country dance. The Duke of Wellington remarked to me that he saw a great likeness between the King and George IV., and he has the same kind, gracious manner. On the day of the christening, when all was over, Lady Lytton expressed her hope that the King of Prussia was not fatigued; upon which he answered: "*Comment donc fatigué, depuis mon arrivée en Angleterre je n'éprouve que, joie, joie, joie, et toujours joie, que Dieu bénisse l'enfant.*" At the Archbishop of Canterbury's he gave us the toast "The Queen and the Church, for they can never be separated." Yesterday, when Lord De la Warr (the Lord Chamberlain) and the attendants were backing and bowing in taking his Majesty to the carriage, he said: "*De grace, ne faites donc pas cette cérémonie pour moi, allez-vous-en, allez-vous-en.*"

The King of Prussia left England on the 4th of February. "We all feel melancholy at his departure. We got so accustomed to seeing his Majesty and his suite, and they were all so amiable and enjoyed their visit so much, that it was quite touching to bid them farewell. The Queen breakfasted with his Majesty, and when he went away she accompanied him to the door and kissed his cheek; after which she made him a low curtsy, and waited till the carriage drove off. I should say from all accounts that the visit has gone off as well as possible. The King has done more in a short time than anyone ever did before. The Prussians were very much struck yesterday at the opening of Parliament, and it was a very interesting sight. I went with Lady Jolliffe, Miss Paget, and Lady

Fanny Howard. We sat in the gallery immediately opposite the door to the right of the throne, saw the Queen enter, and heard every word of the speech. Her Majesty looked rather pale, but her manner on all these occasions is quite perfect, full of grace and dignity, and her voice was firm and as clear as a silver bell. It is quite remarkable how well the Queen reads. It was so pretty to see her after she had finished, for she stopped after descending from the throne, turned to the King of Prussia, and made him a low curtsey. The House was very full."

During his visit the King was introduced to Elizabeth Fry, the famous prison reformer. With his usual bluff courtesy he insisted upon taking an informal luncheon at her cottage. On this occasion Mrs. Fry presented to him eight daughters and daughters-in-law, seven sons and sons-in-law, and twenty-five grandchildren. A typical English family, truly!

Lord Augustus Loftus, in his "Diplomatic Reminiscences," says: "The visit of the King of Prussia to England, on the invitation of her Majesty the Queen to be godfather to the Prince of Wales, attracted the attention of Europe, and was an event which strongly marked the friendly feelings on the part of the King towards England. But, notwithstanding the jealousies and the groundless suspicions to which it gave rise, it was but natural that on so auspicious an occasion the ruler of a great Protestant country should graciously profit of the opportunity of evincing to the world the intimate relations existing between the two great Protestant countries of Europe, and of offering a happy omen of their future continuance. The King was accompanied by a numerous suite of whom Count Stolber and Baron Alexander von Humboldt were the chief personages."

King Frederick William IV. was a somewhat belated politician. He lived haunted by the memory of the French Revolution. He was anxious to promote the welfare of his people, but in the old-fashioned paternal way. Universal suffrage spelt for him anarchy. Yet when he discovered that the best and wisest of his subjects desired a constitutional government, he gave way. As a son, a brother, a friend, he was all that could be desired. One of his German critics thus writes of him: "Endowed with brilliant talents, witty, a lover of art, amiable, eloquent, full of a noble enthusiasm; honor flowed naturally from his heart and won the affection of all around him. But he was 'strengkirchlich.'" His great fault was that he was a strong churchman, a good man among a free thinking people. Posterity will think none the worse of him for that. He died in 1861 and was succeeded by his brother William, grandfather of the present emperor.

In 1844 Louis Philippe, King of the French, visited her Majesty. He was well received everywhere. The English people took a curious interest in a king who had experienced such vicissitudes of fortune; who had "blackened his own boots" while he earned his bread as the teacher of a village school.

Before he left, the Queen conferred on him the Order of the Garter. The Corporation of the City of London honored him with an address of congratulation.

Four years later her Majesty and Louis Philippe met again. This time he came as a fugitive seeking protection and hospitality from the Queen he had deceived in the affair of the Spanish marriages. The Queen received him most kindly.

"Little did I dream," her Majesty wrote to Baron Stockmar, "that this would be the way we should meet again, and see each other all on the most friendly terms; that the Duchess of Montpensier (the Spanish Infanta), about whom we have been quarrelling for the last year and a half, should be here as a fugitive, and dressed in the clothes I sent her, and should come to thank me for *my kindness*, is a reverse of fortune which no novelist would devise, and upon which one could moralise for ever."

But though her Majesty received him kindly, she could not receive him publicly, or interfere in any way with the action of a foreign state. The French King had been elected by the people; now they had rejected him, deposed him. The Queen of Britain might pity the ex-King, she might afford him an asylum; in fact, she gave him Claremont for a residence; more she could not do.

Louis Philippe, "that Royal Ikey Solomon, that Ikey Basilica," in Carlyle's phrase, was not a great man, not even a great monarch. But he had discernment. He knew his France. He knew when it was too hot to hold him. He knew where a safe refuge might be found. "Perfidious Albion," as the French preferred to call England, was the only land in Europe where neither his money nor life would be demanded. Louis Philippe was a keen observer; some of his sayings are luminous: "For a Frenchman the best straight-waistcoat is a uniform." "A National Guard is like a tree in a flower-pot; it looks very pretty till it grows, and then it breaks the pot, *i.e.*, the country, to pieces." "Ireland is an incurable disease, but it is never mortal."

The Czar Nicholas, who had visited England, and had been invested with the Order of the Garter in 1827, paid a second visit in 1844. The Queen tells

us that he was greatly taken with Windsor, saying very politely, "It is worthy of you, Madame." He won the Queen's heart by speaking kindly of Prince Albert: "Nowhere will you see a handsomer young man; he has such an air of nobility and goodness." "Military uniform," he said at one of the Queen's receptions, "had become so second nature with him, that without it he felt as if they took off his skin." Uniform was therefore worn at the Court every evening during his stay. The Queen said of him: "He is a very striking man; he gives Albert and myself the impression of a man who is not happy, and on whom the burden of his immense power and position bears heavily and painfully. He seldom smiles, and when he does the expression is not a happy one."

The Czar made himself popular in England by founding a racing prize at Ascot of £500. While in England he talked as if he had no higher ambition than to maintain the friendly alliance cemented during the wars with Napoleon. When he wished to convey his impression of personal loyalty and honor he always spoke of "the word of an English gentleman." His ideal hero was the Duke of Wellington. He it was who first compared Turkey to a "sick man." His proposals as to the disposition of the "sick man's" property would seem about to be accepted now. Had the British statesmen of the day trusted him the Crimean war might have been averted, the Indian mutiny might never have broken out, and the attitude of Britain and Russia towards the Turkish Empire, now seen to be the right one, might have been assumed fifty years ago.

In April, 1855, Napoleon III., Emperor of the French, accompanied by his beautiful wife, Eugénie, visited her Majesty. Prince Albert met the Imperial guests at Dover. London poured out to cheer them on their way to the Castle. At Windsor the excitement was intense. The Queen writes: "I cannot say what indescribable emotions seized me, how much all seemed like a wonderful dream." In the afternoon there was a review of the Household Troops; at night there was a ball in the Waterloo Room. Her Majesty remarks: "To think that I, the granddaughter of George III., should dance with the Emperor Napoleon, nephew of England's greatest enemy, now my nearest and most intimate ally, in the Waterloo Room, and this ally only six years ago living in this country in exile, poor and unthought of."

During his stay at Windsor his Imperial Highness was invested with the insignia of the Order of the Garter. On his departure the Queen wrote in her

Diary: "I am glad to have known this extraordinary man, whom it is certainly impossible not to like when you live with him, and not even to a considerable extent to admire. . . . I believe him to be capable of kindness, affection, friendship and gratitude."

When Napoleon the Great died he left a son by Marie Louise, the Duc de Reichstadt, heir to the hopes of his dynasty. In 1832 the Duc de Reichstadt died, leaving Louis Napoleon, nephew of Napoleon I., legal representative of the house of Napoleon. Louis Napoleon looked upon the French throne as his property. The acquisition of it grew into a fixed idea. His ambition strengthened into a monomania. The Imperial crown became the dream of his life, the star of his destiny, the god of his worship. The successive removals from his path of his elder brother and of the Duc de Reichstadt invited him to advance with a high heart along the road to

Solely sovereign sway and masterdom.

The corruption of the government of Louis Philippe encouraged him to make the unsuccessful Strasbourg attempt. The revolution of 1848 brought him to France. Step by step he climbed the ascent to power. He was elected member of the French National Assembly. He was elected President of the Republic. Amid the shouts of the people he entered at last the Tuileries as Emperor. His airy vision had become at last a reality. When he visited England it was as her Majesty's faithful ally against Russia. After the Crimean War he rose still higher in European influence. He humbled Austria, freed Italy, levelled the Great Wall of China, ventured to set up an empire in Mexico. For twenty years he filled the eyes of the world. The whole earth listened to his every word. For good or evil his name was potent in every corner of the globe.

Then the growing giant, Prussia, began to rise between him and the sun. He marched to dictate to a conquered people at Berlin. Then came Sedan, when Napoleon III. surrendered his sword to the son of that Frederick William III., over whom the First Napoleon had brandished it with merciless insolence.

Forty years of obscurity, of exile, of imprisonment; twenty years of supreme masterdom; then the disgrace of Sedan; then a few months of oblivion at Chislehurst; then an unmarked death, made up his life's strange story.

As we have seen, her Majesty was greatly taken with the grave, heavy-lidded Emperor, the inscrutable Man of Destiny. Prince Albert read him differently;

perhaps less wisely. His estimate of him was the popular estimate: a charlatan, always posing, always to be taken with a grain of salt.

British feeling was, at bottom, against him. It credited him with the determination to avenge Waterloo. Nothing was farther from his thoughts. Though Emperor of the French he was a lover of Britain. It had sheltered him in exile, welcomed him in the hour of his triumph. Its common-sense was respected by him. If he could have been what he desired to be, he would have been the firm friend of Britain. Had he been stronger, less self-indulgent, less amiable,



WINDSOR CASTLE.

he might have kept France in that friendly union with Britain which would have ensured peace and progress for all Europe.

But behind him was his native obscurity; before him the phantom that dazzled France—Glory. He must pursue it or abdicate. He pursued it—to Sedan!

Soon after Napoleon and Eugénie, there came to the British Court a guest whose arrival was hailed with singular enthusiasm, Victor Emmanuel, King of Sardinia. Inspired by the counsels of one of the master-spirits of modern poli-

tics, Count Cavour, Sardinia had struck in on the side of Britain and France in the Crimean War. That act laid the foundation of the Kingdom of Italy, and of the warm and close alliance between Italy and Britain. This alliance, which still continues, is perhaps the only one in which sentiment is more powerful than interest.

In 1867 Abdul Aziz, Sultan of Turkey, visited her Majesty; the first Commander of the Faithful to set foot on English ground. He was the lion of London that year. Splendid balls were given in his honor. At these he appeared with a melancholy gravity that endeared him to a people "accustomed to take their pleasure sadly." His enjoyment of the suppers that followed was so unfeigned that the wariest financiers were unable to refuse him their confidence. He was entertained by the Lord Mayor and



SULTAN ABDUL AZIZ.

Yet hope of his Ottoman Majesty's reformation was high. The sight of free British institutions, with their attendant peace, concord and prosperity; the ravishing strains of the opera; the pastoral symphonies of the Agricultural Hall; the dazzling magnificence of the Crystal Palace; the solid dinners at the Guild-hall—all these powerful aids to reflection must produce an ameliorating effect on his character and his policy.

For a time Britain cherished for the Grand Turk the same hope which Burns

the Corporation of London; he went in state to the opera, and to the Crystal Palace; he saw a review of the Fleet; he was invested by her Majesty with the Order of the Garter. In a word, the national seal was set to British belief in his good faith and his solvency.

True, Crete was being harried by his troops; and for Crete, England's heart was bleeding.

expressed for another Prince : "Aiblins he'll tak a thocht an' mend." The poet we know was disappointed. So was Britain. With comparative indifference, therefore, Britain heard, in 1876, that Abdul Aziz had been dethroned and murdered. His nephew Murad was made Sultan, only to be deposed as insane three months later, when the present Sultan, Abdul Hamid, was proclaimed. Of him, in 1878, Lord Beaconsfield asserted, "He is not a tyrant ; he is not dissolute ; he is not a bigot ; he is not corrupt." Leave out the "nots" and what an admirable description we have of the present Commander of the Faithful.

In 1873 the Queen received a visit from the Shah of Persia, who came to England on her invitation. Rumors of his vast wealth, his wonderful diamonds, his emerald epaulettes, had laid in the public breast a solid foundation for an enthusiastic welcome.

Nassr-ed-Deen landed at Dover. The Duke of Edinburgh and Prince Arthur met him at the pier. London went mad about him. To do him honor her Majesty tore herself away from Balmoral. She received him at Windsor with cordiality. He was magnificently entertained by the Lord Mayor. He reviewed the Artillery at Woolwich, the Fleet at Spithead. He went in state to the Italian Opera ; to the International Exhibition, and to a concert at the Royal Albert Hall. The Queen conferred on him the Order of the Garter, presenting him with the badge and collar set in diamonds. His departure was accompanied by every circumstance of honor.

In 1889 he again visited England and was received with, if possible, increased heartiness. His friendly policy towards Great Britain has been continued by his son, Muzaffer-ed-Deen, who ascended the throne in 1896.

In May, 1874, Alexander II., Emperor of Russia, arrived in England on a visit to his daughter, the Grand Duchess Marie Alexandrowna, wife of the Duke of Edinburgh. He was received with the utmost cordiality by the Queen at Windsor. London hailed him as "The Liberator of the Serfs." The poor of the city had reason to remember his visit with gratitude ; he left in the hands of the Bishop and the Lord Mayor £1,000 for their relief. No foreign ruler ever succeeded so well in winning the esteem of all classes of the British people as this huge, burly, narrow-minded man, sterling to the core, a strict observer of his marriage vow, a devoted father. His assassination in 1881 sent a thrill of horror through Great Britain.

In the autumn of 1874 the Empress of Russia, accompanied by the Czarevitch, father of the present Emperor, visited England to be present at the baptism of the infant son of the Duke and Duchess of Edinburgh.

Among the many notabilities who paid visits to the Queen we may name, and only name, the Sultan of Zanzibar (1875), the King of Greece (1880), Ex-Queen Isabella (1890), the Prince of Naples (1891).

Leaving for the moment the world of royalty we shall chronicle two other visits, one from the realm of Art, the other from the realm of the Grotesque—Mendelssohn and General Tom Thumb.

The great composer's visit recalls us to the early days of her Majesty's happy married life. The year is 1842; the place, Buckingham Palace. Mendelssohn is writing to his mother :

" Prince Albert had asked me to go to him on Saturday at two o'clock, so that I might try his organ before I left England. I found him alone, and as we were talking away, the Queen came in, also alone, in a simple morning dress. She said she was obliged to leave for Claremont in an hour, and then, suddenly interrupting herself, exclaimed, ' But, goodness, what a confusion ! ' for the wind had littered the whole room, and even the pedals of the organ (which, by the way, made a very pretty picture in the room) with leaves of music from a large portfolio that lay open.

" As she spoke she knelt down and began picking up the music ; Prince Albert helped, and I too was not idle. Then Prince Albert proceeded to explain the stops to me, and she said that she meanwhile would put things straight. I begged that the Prince would first play me something, so that, as I said, I might boast about it in Germany. He played a chorale by heart, with the pedals, so charmingly, and clearly, and correctly, that it would have done credit to any professional ; and the Queen, having finished her work, came and sat by him, and listened, and seemed pleased. Then it was my turn, and I began my chorus from St. Paul, ' How lovely are the messengers.' Before I got to the end of the first verse they both joined in the chorus, and all the time Prince Albert managed the stops for me, so cleverly ; first a flute ; at the *forte* the great organ ; at the D major, part of the whole register ; then he made a lovely *diminuendo* with the stops, and so on to the end of the piece, and all by heart, that I was really

quite enchanted. Then the young Prince of Gotha came in, and there was more chatting, and the Queen asked if I had written any new songs, and said she was very fond of singing my published ones. 'You should sing one to him,' said Prince Albert, and after a little begging she said she would try the 'Frühlingshed' in B flat. 'If it is still here,' she said, 'for my music is packed up for Claremont.' Prince Albert went to look for it, but came back saying it was already packed. 'But one might perhaps unpack it,' said I. 'We must send



TRAFALGAR SQUARE, SHOWING NELSON'S MONUMENT.

for Lady ——,' she said. I did not catch the name. So the bell was rung, and the servants were sent after it, but without success; and at last the Queen went herself, and while she was gone Prince Albert said to me, 'She begs you will keep this present as a remembrance,' and gave me a little case with a beautiful ring, on which is engraved 'V. R. 1842.' Then the Queen came back, and said, 'Lady —— is gone, and has taken all my things with her; it really is very annoying.' You can't think how that amused me. I then begged that I might

not be made to suffer for the accident, and hoped she would sing another song. After some consultation with her husband, he said, 'She will sing you something of Gluck's.'

"Meantime the Princess of Gotha had come in, and we five proceeded through various corridors and rooms to the Queen's sitting-room. The Duchess of Kent came in too, and while they were all talking I rummaged about among the music, and soon discovered my first set of songs; so of course I begged her rather to sing one of those than the Gluck, to which she very kindly consented; and which did she choose? '*Schöner und Schöner Schimmkt sich*,' sang it quite charmingly, in strict time and tune, and with very good execution. Only in the line, 'Der prora lasten und Muh,' where it goes down to the D and then comes up again chromatically, she sang D sharp each time; and as I gave her the note both times, the last time she sang D, and then it ought to have been D sharp. But with the exception of this little mistake it was really charming; and the last long G I have never heard better or purer or more natural from an amateur. . . . Then she sang the 'Pilgerspruch, Lass dich nur,' really quite faultlessly and with charming feeling and expression. I thought to myself, one must not pay too many compliments, so I only thanked her a great many times, upon which she said, 'Oh! if only I had not been so frightened; generally I have such long breath.' Then I praised her immediately, and with the best conscience in the world, for just that part with the long G at the end she had done so well, taking the three following and connecting notes in the same breath, as one seldom hears it done; and therefore it amused me doubly that she herself should have begun about it. After this Prince Albert sang the Aerdte-lied 'Er ist ein Schnitter;' and then he said I must play him something before I went, and gave me as themes the chorale which he had played on the organ and the song he had just sung. . . . Just as if I was to keep nothing but the pleasantest, most charming recollection of it, I never improvised better. I was in the best mood for it, and played a long time, and enjoyed it myself."

In 1844 General Tom Thumb visited her Majesty at Buckingham Palace. Mr. Barnum in his "Struggles and Triumphs" gives the following account:

"We were received in what is called the 'Yellow Drawing Room,' a magnificent apartment, surpassing in splendor and gorgeousness anything of the kind I had ever seen. It is on the north side of the gallery, and is entered from that

apartment. It was hung with drapery of rich yellow satin damask, the couches, sofas, and chairs being covered with the same material. The vases, urns and ornaments were all of modern patterns and the most exquisite workmanship. The room was panelled in gold, and the heavy cornices beautifully carved and gilt. The tables, pianos, &c., were mounted with gold inlaid with pearl of various hues, and of the most elegant designs.

"We were ushered into this gorgeous drawing-room before the Queen and royal circle had left the dining-room; and as they approached the General bowed respectfully, and remarked to her Majesty that 'he had seen her before,' adding: 'I think this is a prettier room than the picture gallery; that chandelier is very fine.'

"The Queen took him by the hand, and said she hoped he was well.

"'Yes, madam,' he replied; 'I am first-rate.'

"'General,' continued the Queen, 'this is the Prince of Wales.'

"'How are you, Prince?' said the General, shaking him by the hand; and then, standing beside the Prince, he remarked: 'The Prince is taller than I am; but I feel as big as anybody;' upon which he strutted up and down the room as proud as a peacock, amidst shouts of laughter from all present.

"The Queen then introduced the Princess Royal, and the General immediately led her to his elegant little sofa, which we took with us, and with much politeness sat himself down beside her. Then, rising from his seat, he went through his various performances, and the Queen handed him an elegant and costly souvenir, which had been expressly made for him by her order, for which he told her 'he was very much obliged, and would keep it as long as he lived.' The Queen of the Belgians (daughter of King Louis Philippe) was present on this occasion. The souvenir was of mother-of-pearl set with rubies, bearing a crown and the royal initials 'V.R.'"

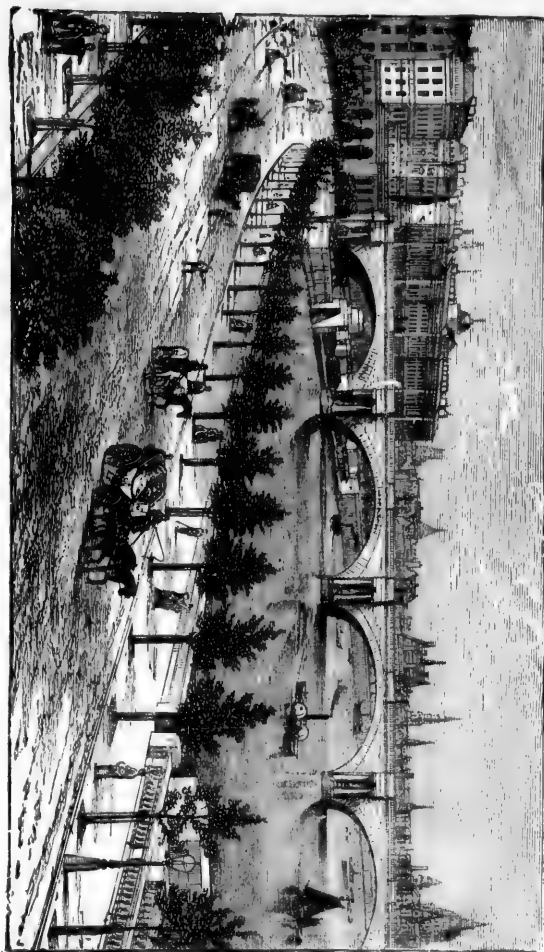
In July, 1891, Kaiser William II., accompanied by the Empress of Germany, paid a State visit to the Queen. The first three days were spent at Windsor and had all the characteristics of a family gathering. Her Majesty had set her heart on doing full honor to her illustrious grandson. A solemn banquet in the historic castle gave occasion for the display of all the magnificence that the British monarchy could exhibit; while a Royal marriage in St. George's Chapel—the high contracting parties being Princess Louise, daughter of Prince and Princess Christian,

and Prince Aribert of Anhalt—furnished a scene no less splendid of another kind.

During the following days the Emperor received addresses from various societies. In replying to an address from the Anti-Slavery Society, the Emperor referred to the inhumanity of the Arab dealers, and to the sufferings of their victims. He specially inquired whether Dr. Livingstone had, or had not, overestimated the number of deaths among slaves when he said that for every one that reached the coast alive ten died on the way. The Rev. Horace Waller, who had travelled through the interior of Africa, assured the Kaiser that this computation was no exaggeration, and that the greatest offender was Tippoo Tib. The Emperor replied that something must certainly be done to put an end to such a state of things. In the course of his formal answer to the address his Majesty observed that he had been much impressed by the accounts of the desolation caused by the slave-traders which were given him by Major Wissmann whom he had seen before leaving for England. The Major had told him that the inhabitants of South African districts, through which he had passed, and in which he had found densely populous and prosperous villages, had entirely disappeared when he returned through that country two years later, the slave-hunters not having left a man alive. His Majesty rejoiced to feel that the united fleets of Germany and Britain were acting in concert, and had already been successful in checking the export of slaves. At the same time, he feared that in the interior it was probable that the slave trade would not be suppressed without some further severe struggles with the slave raiders.

The great event of the Emperor's visit was his State entry into the City of London. The route was lined with soldiers, and in the Strand and in the city there was a showy display of flags and other decorations. Crowds assembled in the streets and windows. Platforms erected for the occasion, were filled with spectators. It was amid a genuine welcome that the Emperor and Empress and their suite drove to Guildhall. The Emperor, who looked pale and somewhat tired, wore a white tunic with silver epaulettes and white gauntlets, and a plumed helmet. The Empress, in cream-color and mauve, with a gold embellished bonnet, seemed in high spirits. At the Guildhall a procession was made to the library, where an address from the Corporation was presented, in reply to which his Majesty said :

"I thank you with many thanks for this address. I hope that the Lord Mayor



THE THAMES EMBANKMENT, LONDON.

and Corporation will always enjoy all the progress they can have under the glorious and peaceful reign of her Majesty the Queen, my beloved grandmother."

Then followed the *déjeuner* in the hall, which was filled with distinguished guests. After the toasts of "The Queen" and "The Emperor and Empress" had been proposed by Lord Mayor Savory, and duly honored, his Majesty made, amid loud acclamation, the following speech:

"My Lord—Receive my most heartfelt thanks for the warm welcome from the citizens of this ancient and noble metropolis. I beg that your lordship will kindly transmit the expression of my feelings to those whose names you have spoken. I have always felt at home in this lovely country, being the grandson of a Queen whose name will ever be remembered as the most noble character, and a lady great in the wisdom of her counsels, and whose reign has conferred lasting blessings on Britain. Moreover, the same blood runs in English and German veins. Following the examples of my grandfather, and of my ever-lamented father, I shall always, as far as it is in my power, maintain the historical friendship between these two great nations, which, as your lordship mentioned, have so often been seen side by side in defence of liberty and justice. I feel encouraged in my task when I see that wise and capable men, such as are gathered here, do justice to the earnestness and honesty of my intentions. MY AIM IS ABOVE ALL THE MAINTENANCE OF PEACE, for peace alone can give the confidence which is necessary to the healthy development of science, art and trade. Only as long as peace reigns are we at liberty to bestow earnest thoughts upon the great problems, the solution of which in fairness and equity I consider the most prominent duty of our times. You may rest assured, therefore, that I shall continue to do my best to maintain and constantly to increase the good relations between Germany and the other nations, and that I shall always be found ready to unite with you and them in a common labor for peaceful progress, friendly intercourse, and the advancement of civilization. I beg to propose the health of the Lord Mayor and Corporation of London."

The return journey to Buckingham Palace was made *via* Queen Victoria Street and the Embankment, amid similar crowds. In the evening the Emperor dined in State with the Commander-in-Chief, the Duke of Cambridge. Among the guests, who were officers of high rank, and were all in full uniform, it was noticeable that there were Colonel the Marquis of Salisbury and Colonel the Marquis of Hartington. The day's proceedings were wound up with a State ball at Buckingham Palace.

On Sunday, after attending divine service at St. Paul's Cathedral, the Emperor and Empress proceeded to Hatfield House, on a visit to the Marquis of Salisbury. This fine old house was at one time a Royal palace. It was from it that both Edward VI. and Elizabeth were conducted to London to take possession of the throne.

The Cromwell Room, in which the Emperor slept, is so called because of a tradition that Oliver Cromwell used it. The adjoining room is still called the Queen's Room, in remembrance of her Majesty's visit in company with the Prince Consort. In the same gallery is the room in which James I. slept, and the huge, gorgeous bedstead, with its faded canopy and cloth of gold, and rich carvings, is sacredly preserved. On Monday morning Lord Cranborne, the eldest son of Lord Salisbury, was his Majesty's guide through the woods. They first rode down the Royal avenue, and, breaking into a gallop, made for Queen Elizabeth's oak, where they drew rein. The Emperor was then told the interesting history of the ancient tree—namely, that it indicated the limit of Princess Elizabeth's walk when a prisoner at Hatfield, whilst beneath its spreading branches (which have long since fallen away) she heard that she was Queen of England. A further ride, followed by a smart gallop home, prepared both horsemen for breakfast, which was served at ten o'clock. The morning meal over, the Emperor, as is his wont, devoted himself to State business with Count Hatzfeldt and the chief of the German Foreign Office, both of whom were staying at Hatfield.

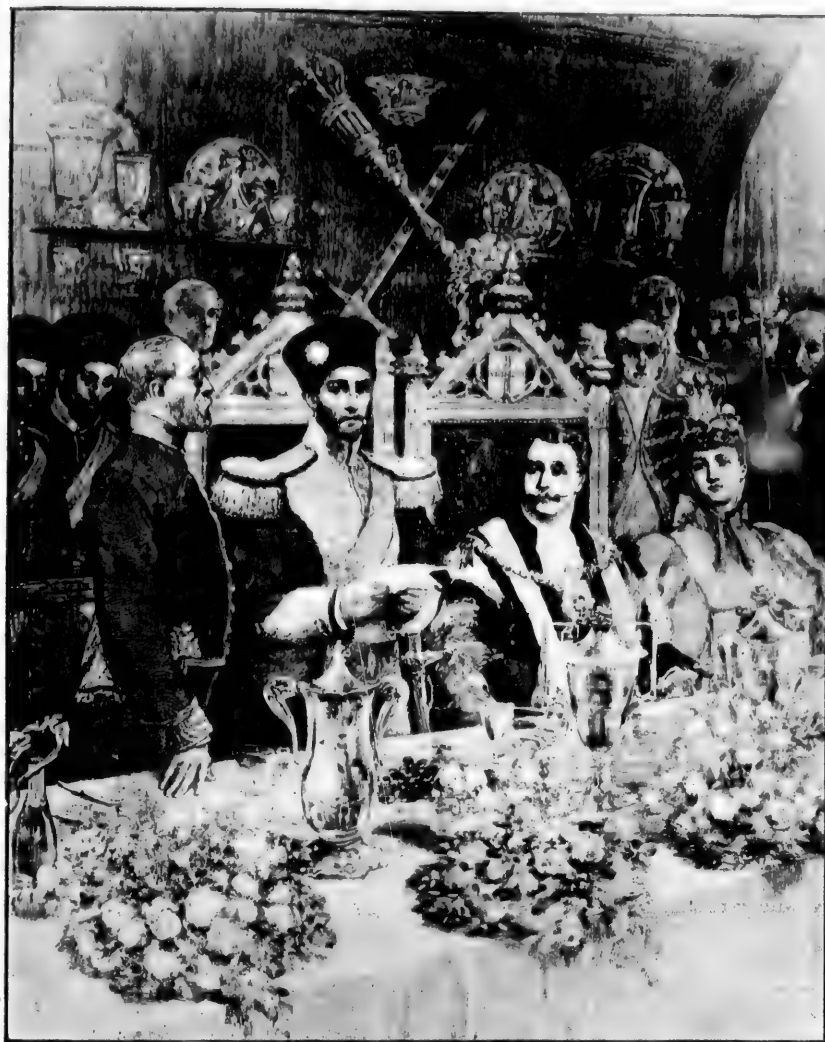
In the afternoon the Emperor, in the uniform of a British Admiral, left Hatfield, with the Empress, for Windsor, to take leave of the Queen. From thence the Empress went to Felixstowe to join her children; the Emperor journeying north to Leith, where his yacht awaited him.

During the visit the assiduous attention of the Prince of Wales to his Imperial nephew could not be exceeded.

In 1893, a British Mission under Sir Mortimer Durand was cordially received at Cabul. The Ameer of Afghanistan made a most friendly speech at a grand Durbar held in November. In 1894, the Ameer received an invitation to visit England, as the guest of Queen Victoria. The Ameer himself could not come, but to show his good-will he sent his second son, the Shahzada Nasrullah Khan. From the moment of his arrival in England the Prince was in the midst of festiv-

ities and ceremonials. A long programme was prepared for his entertainment. Landing at Portsmouth on the Queen's Birthday, 1895, he was taken to the annual parade of troops. The Shahzada was driven on to the parade-ground in an open carriage, in which were also seated Colonel Talbot, representing the Indian Government, and Sir Gerald Fitzgerald, who had been deputed by the Indian Office to wait upon the young Prince. The Prince, who had a hearty reception from the assembled crowd of sightseers, took great interest in the review, and when the Naval Brigade came by, amid the cheers of the spectators, he seemed to sympathize with the enthusiasm. Later in the afternoon the Shahzada left Portsmouth for London. The train arrived at Victoria Station at five o'clock. The Secretary of State for India and other officials were here presented to the Prince.

On Saturday, the Shahzada witnessed the trooping of the colors in honor of her Majesty's birthday. That brilliant ceremony was rendered yet more attractive by the attendance of the Afghan Prince. Greater than ever seemed the gathering throng, while behind the sentries on the parade-ground—beyond the boundaries of the official ticket—the patient sightseers waited and waited until the Headquarters Staff, with the Princes and the Shahzada, should ride by. Lord Falmouth and the Guardsmen were ranged in wonted Guards' solidity and imposing smartness in the great square below, with the bands of the cavalry and infantry, more gorgeous far than Nasrullah Khan, and brighter with their burnished instruments of music than their brethren with the weapons of war. Over the heads of the cheering folk, and between and beneath the green trees of the Mall, appeared the plumes and uniforms of the Headquarters Staff. Between the Prince and the Duke of Cambridge, who wore the Grenadier Guards uniform, rode the Shahzada. Their arrival on the parade-ground was proclaimed afar by the crash of the bands into the opening bars of "God Save the Queen." It was a very grand spectacle which was presented to the eyes of the Afghan Prince, as he rode along the ranks of the Household troops, and then returned to the saluting-base to witness the quaint ceremonial of trooping the colors. As the scion of a fighting line, our visitor must have been marvellously impressed with the marching, in slow and quick time, of the Coldstreams, Scots, and Grenadiers, with the splendid steadiness and martial grandeur of the Life Guards and Blues. The Prince of Wales, as Colonel-in-Chief, marched past at the head of the Blues. Then, the troops being reformed, a general salute was given, and the pageant was over.



NASRULLAH KHAN RESPONDING TO THE TOAST OF "THE AMEER."

The Shahzada was not always inclined to fall in with official arrangements. On Sunday he preferred to rest quietly at Dorchester House, which had been assigned him as a residence, instead of going to the Zoo, much to the disappointment of the waiting public.

On Monday, the 27th of May, the Shahzada was received in State at Windsor by the Queen.

On the 6th of June, the Shahzada visited the Guildhall to receive an address of welcome from the Lord Mayor on behalf of the City of London. Although there were not many decorations along the route till Cheapside was reached, the streets were crowded, and the inhabitants of the city cheered heartily as the procession came by. There were four State carriages escorted by a Horse Guard troop, and the usual bodyguard of Afghan cavalry surrounding the first carriage with its four bays and postillions, where the Shahzada sat in his gold-embroidered frock coat and Astrakhan cap, with its splendid diamond aigrette. At the Guildhall the Prince was conducted to the library, where the Lord Mayor and a large gathering had assembled. Taking his seat by the Lord Mayor on the dais the Shahzada listened gravely to the address of welcome read by the Town Clerk, and interpreted by Colonel Talbot. The address was subsequently enclosed in a beautiful gold casket of Persian design. The Shahzada replied in low, measured tones, with Colonel Talbot for his interpreter. The party then adjourned to the Guildhall for lunch. Here there was more speechmaking. Nasrullah Khan took the opportunity to remark that the friendship of Britain and Afghanistan was on the best possible footing. The following day he went down the Thames by steamer to inspect the docks and the P. and O. liner *Caledonia*. The shipping greatly surprised the Prince, who was quite fascinated by the Tower Bridge, "the most wonderful thing he had seen in England," so he declared.

A few days later the Shahzada started on a provincial tour. At Birmingham he inspected several of the leading manufactories. The bent of the Shahzada's mind was shown in his visit to the Small Arms Works at Small Heath. He refused to be hurried through in the allotted half-hour, but remained fully two hours, examining rifles and studying the processes of manufacture.

Manchester and its great cotton mills were next visited. Here the Shahzada was so interested in the various stages of cotton spinning and manufacture, that he could hardly be induced to quit the mills for luncheon. A trip on the Manchester Ship Canal was much enjoyed. At Liverpool the Shahzada received an

elaborate welcome from a body of English and Oriental Mahomedans, headed by an English convert, Mr. Quilliam, who has been made the "Sheik-ul-Islam of the British Isles."

Glasgow, with its wonderful dockyards, was next visited. The Prince had a very strong opinion on what he cared and did not care to see, while his indifference as to time altogether upset the British idea of punctuality. The inspection of arms and ammunition factories and of war ships half completed in the dockyards had far more interest for him than the cut and dried speeches at formal luncheons.

The Shahzada took formal farewell of the Queen at Windsor on the 20th of July, having evidently enjoyed his three months' visit.

There can be no doubt that the visit of Nasrullah Khan to Britain proved a most successful stroke of policy in our relations with Afghanistan. Though the orthodox Oriental impassibility prevented him from much outward display of feeling, the Shahzada was keenly delighted with his reception, and found Britain even a more wonderful place than he had anticipated. Perhaps in appreciation of the warm reception accorded to his son, the Ameer, in the same month of July, ratified an agreement as to the Indo-Afghan frontier, which had been signed by the British and Afghan representatives three months before.

CHAPTER XII.

Home Politics.

Some Notable Ministries—The Queen's Prime Ministers—The Queen's Diplomacy—Her Attention to Public Business.

WILLIAM LAMB, Viscount Melbourne, was Prime Minister of the British Empire from 1835 to 1841. He was therefore Prime Minister when Queen Victoria ascended the Throne. It was admitted, even by his opponents, that his services to the young Queen were of inestimable value. At his death the Queen wrote: "Truly and sincerely do I deplore the loss of one who was a most kind and disinterested friend of mine, and most sincerely attached to me. He was indeed for the first two years and a half of my reign almost the only friend I had, except Stockmar and Lehzen, and I used to see him constantly—daily. I thought much of him and talked much of him all day."

Wellington said that the noble Viscount had rendered the greatest possible service to her Majesty; making her acquainted with the mode and policy of the government of the country, initiating her into the laws and spirit of the Constitution, independently of the performance of his duty as the servant of her Majesty; teaching her, in short, to preside over the destinies of this great country.

The oft-quoted Greville wrote: "The Queen is upon terms of the greatest cordiality with Lord Melbourne, and very naturally. Everything is new and delightful to her. She is surrounded with the most exciting and interesting enjoyments; her occupations, her business, her Court, all present an unceasing round of gratifications. With all her prudence and discretion she has great animal spirits, and enters into the magnificent novelties of her position with the zest and curiosity of a child. No man is more formed to ingratiate himself with her than Melbourne. He treats her with unbounded consideration and respect, he consults her taste and her wishes, and he puts her at her ease by his frank and natural manners, while he amuses her by the quaint, queer, and epigrammatic turn of his mind, and his varied knowledge upon all subjects."

Lord Cowper thought that the charm of Lord Melbourne's manner was the one great thing that remained impressed upon the mind of all those who had communication with him. Sparkling originality, keen insight into character, a rich store of information on every subject always at hand to strengthen and illustrate conversation, exuberant vitality, and, above all, the most transparent simplicity of nature—these were his principal characteristics. The charms of his manner and conversation were set forth to the utmost advantage by a beautiful voice and a prepossessing personal appearance. He was tall, strong, and of vigorous constitution ; brilliantly handsome even in old age.

A more recent writer, Mr. Brett, writing in a highly eulogistic strain, says that Lord Melbourne's life had been chequered by curious experiences. In the sphere of politics he had found himself on pleasant lines ; but in private his lot had been cast with that of a woman versed in all the wearing secrets of romantic passion. To turn from the memory of his wife's wild excesses in thought and language to the pure-hearted and simple girl whom the Fates had given him as a Queen and a daughter must have touched him to the quick.

Is this an attempt to hide a great man's weakness behind a woman's skirts ? If what another writer says is true, the wife may have had trials which the world knew little of. Mrs. Latimer says that one of Lord Melbourne's most striking peculiarities was a fault acquired in the society in which his lot was cast in early manhood—a habit of accompanying every sentence of his speech with a "big, big D." On one occasion Sydney Smith said to him, "Now, suppose we consider everything and everybody duly d—d, and go on to the subject."

Melbourne made mistakes occasionally. Who does not ? On the whole, however, his career was summed up tersely, yet truly, by the "Quarterly," a review devoted to the interests of his political enemies : "Lord Melbourne had merit enough to throw any co-existing demerit into the shade ; merit enough to give him prominent rank as a high-bred, high-minded, and highly cultivated, thoroughly English statesman, of whom the contemporary and every succeeding generation of Englishmen may be proud."

Melbourne was born in 1779 ; became M. P. for Westminster in 1812 ; Secretary for Ireland in 1827 ; succeeded his father as Viscount Melbourne in 1828 ; was first Lord of the Treasury under William IV. from July to November, 1834 ; returned to office in April, 1835, and retired in 1841. He was thus in his sixty-third year when he finally retired from political life. He died in 1848.

On the retirement of Lord Melbourne in 1841, the Queen consulted with the Duke of Wellington. The Duke declined to accept office. He advised the Queen to send for Sir Robert Peel. The Ministry formed by Peel was composed of very strong men. Some of its junior members have since been among Britain's most distinguished statesmen. The Queen had a personal prejudice against Sir Robert Peel, owing to his attitude on the Bedchamber question. That prejudice soon yielded to the high regard and esteem Peel early acquired from the Prince Consort. There was soon the utmost harmony between the Court and the Cabinet: the pleasant relations continued up to the time of Sir Robert's resignation in 1846. Peel was in his fiftieth year when he assumed office. Almost thirty years of parliamentary and official life had prepared him for this new position. An interesting anecdote of Peel's youthful days is contained in a statement quoted from the letters of Lord Byron, who was a schoolfellow of Peel at Harrow:

"Peel, the orator and statesman—that was, or is, or is to be—was my form fellow, and we were both at the top of our remove. We were on good terms, but his brother was my intimate friend. There were always great hopes of Peel among us all, masters and scholars, and he has not disappointed them. As a scholar he was greatly my superior; as a declaimer and actor I was reckoned at least his equal; as a schoolboy out of school, I was always in scrapes, and he never; and in school he always knew his lessons, and I rarely; but when I knew it well, I knew it nearly as well; and in general information, history, etc., I think I was his superior."

After taking a degree at Oxford without any special academical distinction, Peel entered Parliament in 1809 as member for Cashel; a year later he was selected to second the Address. In the second year of his parliamentary career he was appointed Under-Secretary for the Colonies. In 1812, when he was only a few months over twenty-four years old, he was Chief Secretary for Ireland in Lord Liverpool's Administration. Since that time he had been one of the most conspicuous figures in the House of Commons.

His tenure of office as Chief Secretary for Ireland lasted six years. It is probable that during those years he first became doubtful as to the policy of opposing Roman Catholic Emancipation. At that time, however, O'Connell's partisans dubbed him "Orange Peel," on account of his open hostility to Roman Catholic Emancipation. In 1818, Peel was elected member for the University of Oxford, as the chief champion of the Church in the House of Commons. In 1828, however, Peel

wrote to the Duke of Wellington that he had made up his mind there must be a settlement of the Roman Catholic question, and that the settlement should be, if possible, a complete one. He had not changed his views as to the danger of Roman Catholic Emancipation—he still disliked and dreaded it; but the time had come when a choice had to be made between one danger and another. The danger of resisting Roman Catholic Emancipation seemed to him now far greater than the danger of conceding it.

In March, 1829, the Duke of Wellington and Sir Robert Peel carried the Roman Catholic Emancipation Bill through the House of Commons and the Lords. The indignation against Peel was intense. His voluntary resignation of his seat for the University of Oxford did not remove the impression that Peel had played his party false. Peel, however, faced the storm bravely. He remained in office till 1830, though he exchanged his seat for the University of Oxford for that of Westbury.

When Sir Robert Peel's Ministry came into office in 1841 it inherited many difficulties. Abroad, the Ministry was confronted with serious troubles in Afghanistan and in India, while there had been sharp diplomatic skirmishes with Russia and France. At home the most pressing question was a demand for modifications of the Corn Laws. Peel's accession to office was hailed by the landed interest, which in those days formed the backbone of the Tory party, as proof that the cause of Protection was for the time being secure against attack. The calculation proved fallacious. Peel, the leader of the Tory Ministry, came boldly forward in January, 1846, with a measure for Corn Law repeal, which may be said to have taken away the breath of his friends in Parliament and in the country. After prolonged discussion the bill passed the House of Commons on the 16th of May, and the House of Lords on the 25th of June. The indignation against Peel was marvellous. It was worse than the excitement seventeen years before, when he abandoned what was then called the "Protestant" cause, in favor of Roman Catholic Emancipation. In the House of Commons the feeling was especially bitter. In a few weeks his enemies had their revenge. They coalesced with the Irish members (who had supported Peel's Corn Law bill) on the Irish Coercion bill. On the 25th of June, Peel was defeated on the Coercion bill. He resigned on the 29th inst.

The passing of the bill for the repeal of the Corn Laws was received with great joy by the mass of the people. Tens of thousands of pounds had been spent by

the Anti-Corn Law League in feeling lecturers, in printing pamphlets, and in other ways conducting an active propaganda. Richard Cobden, the father of the movement, was rewarded by a national subscription of nearly 400,000 dollars. Cobden reaped the harvest of the seed that had been sown. Peel was relegated to the cold shades of Opposition for his work in the matter. Well might Peel exclaim :

Blow, blow thou winter wind,
Thou art not so unkind
As man's ingratitude.

Peel's resignation was keenly regretted by the Queen. "Yesterday," she wrote to King Leopold, "was a very hard day for me. I had to part with Sir Robert Peel and Lord Aberdeen, who are irreparable losses to us and to the country. They were both so much overcome that it quite upset me, and we have in them two devoted friends. We felt so safe with them. Never during the five years that they were with me did they ever recommend a person or a thing that was not for my or the country's best, and never for the party's advantage only."

Four years later, in 1850, Peel was thrown from his horse and killed. The Prince Consort wrote a feeling eulogy :

"The constitution of Sir Robert Peel's mind was peculiarly that of a statesman, and of an English statesman ; he was Liberal from feeling, but Conservative upon principle. While his impulses drove him to foster progress, his sagacious mind and great experience showed him how easily the whole machinery of a State and of society is deranged ; and how important, but how difficult also, it is to direct its further development in accordance with its fundamental principles, like organic growth in nature. It was peculiar to him that in great things, as in small, all the difficulties and objections occurred to him ; first he would anxiously consider them, pause, and warn against rash resolutions ; but having convinced himself, after a long and careful investigation, that a step was not only right to be taken, but of the practical mode also of safely taking it, it became a necessity and a duty to him to take it ; all his caution and apparent timidity changed into courage and power of action, and at the same time readiness cheerfully to make any personal sacrifice which its execution might demand."

On July 9th, the day of the funeral, the Prince Consort wrote again : "The feeling in the country is absolutely not to be described. We have lost our truest and trusted counsellor." The Queen wrote the same day to her uncle : "The

sorrow and grief at his death are most touching. Every one seems to have lost a personal friend."

The Duke of Wellington, Mr. Gladstone, Mr. Disraeli, and others, spoke in the House of Commons. Mr. Disraeli disputed the claim made that Peel might be styled the greatest minister, or the greatest leader of parties, or the greatest orator. Disraeli concluded: "But what he really was, and what posterity will acknowledge him to have been, is the greatest Member of Parliament that ever lived. Peace to his ashes! His name will be often appealed to in that scene which he loved so well and never without homage even by his opponents."

On Peel's retirement, her Majesty as a mark of her appreciation and confidence, had offered him the Garter. It was refused on grounds characteristic of him. His heart was not set on titles of honor or social distinctions; he sprang from the people and was essentially of the people; in his case such honor would be misapplied; the only distinction he coveted at her hands was that the Queen should say to him, "You have been a faithful servant, and have done your duty to your country and to myself."

Peel left a will enjoining his family to let his funeral be of the simplest kind. He was buried, therefore, in his parish church, beside his father and mother. His coffin was borne to the grave by workmen from his factories.

- Lord John Russell, who succeeded Peel as Prime Minister, in July, 1846, flourished at a time when government by great families was still more than a phrase. Lord John was born in 1792, and was elected M.P. for Tavistock in 1813, when in his twenty-second year. It was only in 1846, thirty-three years after his first entry into Parliament, that Lord John, notwithstanding his great parliamentary ability, his indomitable activity, and his influential political connections, became Prime Minister. The six years during which he was at the head of affairs were marked by a succession of panics which heightened immeasurably the difficulties of his position. One was purely commercial, but it threw gloom over the country and brought stagnation to trade. Political discontent followed in its train. This in turn reacted on the prospects of the Government. The Irish famine and the rebellion which followed in its wake taxed the resources of the Cabinet to the utmost. The Chartist movement, the agitation over the Papal claims, and the fear of invasion, are landmarks in the turbulent history of the time.

Lord John, like the average politician, made many political blunders. The

famous Durham letter was conspicuous. The Durham letter was so called because it was addressed to Lord John's old friend, the Bishop of Durham. The worst sentences in it were directed against the Tractarian clergymen—men whom Russell regarded as unworthy sons of the Church of England. But the Romanists were incensed at its denial of the Pope's supremacy.

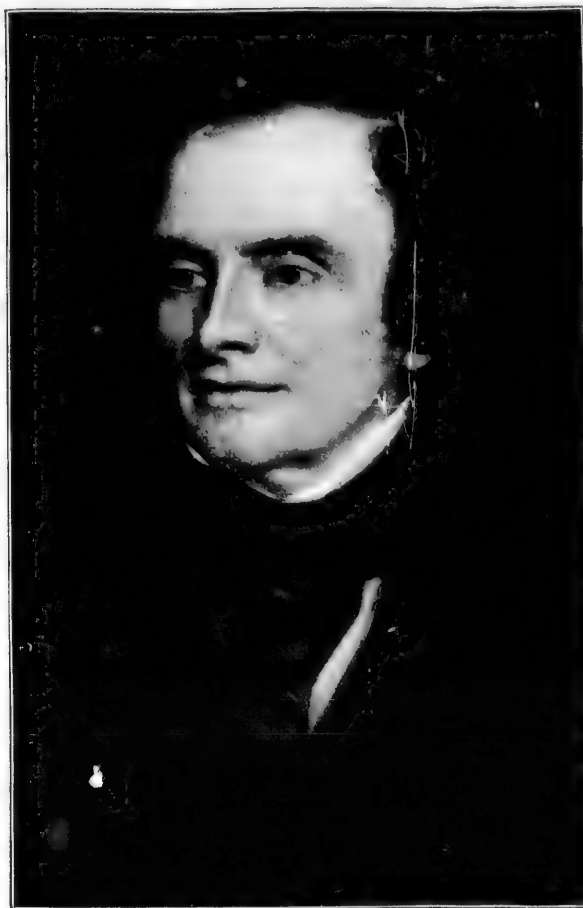
The manifesto was regarded, especially in Ireland, not merely as a protest against the politics of the Vatican, but as a sweeping censure on the creed of Rome. On both sides, common sense and common fairness were forgotten. Lord John, who had long been identified with the principles of religious liberty, who had for one of his closest friends the Roman Catholic poet Thomas Moore, came to be regarded by Roman Catholics as the enemy of their creed and their rights of worship. On the other hand, he was bitterly assailed by the Protestants. "Croker," wrote John Gibson Lockhart, "was in Ireland when Queen Victoria was there, and has little doubt everything is arranged for something like a formal establishment of Popery in that country. If so, there is an end of J. R. & Co. for the season, or I am no prophet. This will be to him and his at least as costly as Corn Law was to Peel."

Lord John's opponents were delighted. Disraeli wrote: "I think John Russell is in a scrape. I understand that his party are furious with him. The Irish are frantic. If he goes on with the Protestant movement he will be thrown over by the Papists; if he shuffles with the Protestants, their blood is too high to be silent now, and they will come to us. I think Johnny is checkmated."

Lord Russell's biographer thinks that the Durham letter and its impassioned protest have been justified by the logic of events.

For the moment it is certain that the ignominious collapse of Lord John's Anti-Popery escapade discredited his administration as well as himself. Lord Palmerston seized the opportunity, in his own characteristic language, of "giving tit for tat" to the Premier who had turned him out of the Foreign Office the year before, by carrying an amendment to Lord John's Militia Bill.

Lord John's treatment of the Irish question was complicated by the distressing famine of 1846-47. The union of Ireland with England and Scotland in 1800 had not had the expected result. For many years, Daniel O'Connell, the great liberator, was the acknowledged agitator and leader of the Irish party. O'Connell declared openly for Repeal. In 1821, when George IV. visited Ireland, a temporary reconciliation was proclaimed between Roman Catholics and Protestants.



LORD JOHN RUSSELL.

O'Connell was offered a high law position under the Crown. When the King departed he knelt and presented him a laurel crown.

In time O'Connell was returned to Parliament and took his seat. He proved himself a great debater. Some of his eloquent speeches were full of pathos. On one occasion Charles Dickens, then a reporter, laid down his pen, saying he was too much moved by the speaker's words to write more of his speech.

O'Connell gave up a large professional income to attend to his duties in Parliament. He was supported by what was called the "Rent." *Punch* caricatured him ten years after as "The Great Beggarman."

He spoke brilliantly in the House of Commons in favor of the Reform Bill. He trusted that the Whig Ministry would in return do something in favor of Repeal. Lord Stanley foolishly replied to the effect that "Ireland had to be taught to fear before she could be taught to love."

O'Connell had taught the Irish how to agitate. He was soon to find that knowledge turned against himself. He was not considered by the hot youth of his party to go far enough. They said he had done nothing to effect Repeal. The Young Ireland Party, as it was now called, broke off from the "uncrowned king," and was in favor of a resort to arms. O'Connell deprecated violence. Young Ireland, however, seemed determined to kick over the traces at the very time when the Liberator was inducing the Whigs to look at the question in a practical manner. O'Connell returned to Ireland and held monster meetings. The last of these meetings was prohibited, O'Connell supporting the prohibition. O'Connell was, however, arrested, but was released after being confined a year in prison.

Famine suddenly made its presence felt, and did so in a manner which threw the privation and scarcity of the previous winter altogether into the shade. At first it was not thought that the failure of the potato crop would be more than partial; but soon it began to appear that for two years at least the food of the poor in Ireland was absolutely gone. The calamity was as crushing as it was rapid. "On July 27," are Father Mathew's words, "I passed from Cork to Dublin, and this doomed plant bloomed in all the luxuriance of an abundant harvest. Returning on August 3 I beheld with sorrow one wide waste of putrefying vegetation." A million and a half of acres were at the moment under cultivation. The blight only spared a quarter of them. To make matters worse, the oat crop, by an unhappy coincidence, proved to a startling extent insufficient. The finan-



O'CONNELL MONUMENT, DUBLIN.

cial loss in that disastrous harvest amounted to between fifteen and sixteen millions sterling. Fever and dysentery made fatal inroads on the dwindling strength of the gaunt and famished peasantry. In one district alone, out of a population of 62,000 inhabitants, no less than 5,000 persons died, directly or indirectly, of starvation in the course of three months. "All our thoughts," said O'Connell, "are engrossed with two topics—endeavoring to keep the people from outbreaks, and endeavoring to get food for them." National associations for relief were quickly formed. Justin McCarthy says: "Whatever might be said about the dilatoriness of the Whig Government in passing measures for the relief of starving Ireland, no one could doubt the good-will of the English people."

In London and throughout the country subscription-lists were opened. The most liberal contributions poured in. In Liverpool many merchants each gave £1,000. The Quakers and other religious bodies sent over a delegation to Ireland to distribute relief. Help, too, came in from other countries. The United States loaded several vessels of its navy with supplies. Ten million pounds were granted by the British Parliament to alleviate the distress. It is estimated that, in 1846, Ireland lost two millions of her population by famine, fever and emigration.

In 1851 dissensions arose between Lord John and Lord Palmerston, leading finally to the dismissal of the latter from the Foreign Office. Lady Russell thought this breach was a calamity to the country.

"Although it had for some months been a threatening danger on the horizon, I cannot but feel that there was accident in its actual occurrence. Had we been in London or at Pembroke Lodge, and not at Woburn Abbey, at the time, they would have met, and talked over the subject of their differences; words spoken might have been equally strong, but would have been less cutting than words written, and conciliatory expressions on John's part would have led the way to promises on Lord Palmerston's. . . . They two kept up the character of England, as the sturdy guardians of her rights against other nations, and the champions of freedom and independence abroad. They did so both before and after the breach of 1851, which was, happily, closed in the following year, when they were once more colleagues in office."

Lord John Russell was Foreign Secretary and leader in the House of Commons in Lord Aberdeen's Ministry at the outbreak of the Crimean War.

Lord John identified himself strongly with the popular demand for war. When the Czar had just recalled his ambassador from the Court of St. James, Lord John made a speech of which the peroration was:

"For my part, if most unexpectedly the Emperor of Russia should recede from his former demands, we shall all rejoice to be spared the pain, the efforts, and the burdens of war. But if peace is no longer consistent with our duty to England, with our duty to Europe, with our duty to the world, we can only endeavor to enter this contest with a stout heart. May God defend the right, and I for my part shall be willing to bear my share of the burden and the responsibility." "If we do not stop the Russians on the Danube," he concluded, "we shall have to stop them on the Indus." It is now a matter of common knowledge that, when the Crimean War began, Nicholas had General Duhamel's scheme before him for an invasion of India through Asia.

Lord John and Lord Palmerston represented the war party in the Aberdeen Ministry. The leader in the House of Commons lost no opportunity of pressing upon the Premier the expediency of making Lord Palmerston Minister of War, in place of the Duke of Newcastle.

The Duke had proved a lamentable failure in the War Office. He was an indefatigable worker, but was certainly not strong enough for such an important position as Minister of War. In consequence he ignominiously failed, at the great crisis in his public career, to arrest the fatal confusion which the winter campaign made on the military resources of the nation. The lack of a commanding head cost thousands of lives, and entailed untold suffering. When the navy forwarded supplies, there was no military authority to receive them; when the military wished to unload a ship, they found that the naval authority had already ordered it away.

There was general indignation throughout Great Britain at the mismanagement of the war. The indignation gradually assumed formidable proportions. Lord John, disgusted at the hesitancy shown by the First Minister, announced publicly his intention of retiring from the Ministry at an early date. He was induced to reconsider this resolution. Later on, seeing that the Government would not accept his views, he pressed his resignation.

In 1859 Lord John was again Foreign Secretary under Lord Palmerston. In 1861 he was raised to the peerage in recognition of his valuable public services. In 1865, Earl Russell, on the death of Lord Palmerston, undertook to form a Ministry. But he was now seventy-three years of age, and had become a dignified member of the House of Lords. His second Ministry was brief. In a few months he retired from office. "Lord John," as he was universally called, was

in his day, as all able men who honestly strive to do their duty will ever be, alternately admired, blamed, praised and censured. He died in 1878 at the age of eighty-six. The Queen expressed her sympathy in the following letter to Lady Russell:

"DALMORAL, May 30th, 1878.

"DEAR LADY RUSSELL,—It was only yesterday afternoon that I heard through the papers that your dear husband had left this world of sorrows and trials peacefully and full of years the night before, or I would have telegraphed and written sooner. You will believe that I truly regret an old friend of forty years standing, and whose personal kindness in trying and anxious times I shall *ever* remember. 'Lord John,' as I knew him best, was one of my *first* and *most distinguished* Ministers, and his departure recalls many eventful times.

"To you, dear Lady Russell, who were ever one of the most devoted of wives, this must be a terrible blow, though you must have for some time been prepared for it. But one is *never* prepared for the blow when it comes, and you have had such trials and sorrows of late years that I most truly sympathize with you. Your dear and devoted daughter will, I know, be the greatest possible comfort to you, and I trust that your grandsons will grow up to be all you could wish.

"Believe me always, yours affectionately,

"VICTORIA R. and I."

Earl Russell's was the life of an English gentleman of the old school. In acknowledging a letter congratulating him upon his birthday, in the last years of his life, he was able to write to his correspondent:

"Thanks for your good wishes. Happy returns I always find them, as my children are so affectionate and loving. Many (returns) I cannot expect, but I have played my part."

Edward, Earl of Derby, the fourth of the Queen's Prime Ministers, was another of a school of British statesmen now fast dying out. Elected to Parliament in 1820, when in his twenty-first year, he was a familiar figure in Parliament and at the Government Offices for the forty-eight years that followed. He was Chief Secretary for Ireland 1830-33; Secretary for the Colonies 1833-4, and again from 1841-45. He was fifty-three years old when he first attained the highest post open to the ambition of British statesmanship. Even his bitterest

critics could never have accused Lord Derby with any show of reason of being greedy of office. Opposition was more in his line than office. On the three occasions when he became Premier he was forced into it by consideration for his party, rather than by personal ambition. His three administrations were all short-lived. The first was formed 27th February, 1852, and terminated 27th December of the same year. The second was formed 25th February, 1858, and



EDWARD, EARL OF DERBY.
Born 1799—Died 1869.

terminated 11th June, 1859; the third was formed 6th July, 1866. Lord Derby resigned through ill-health 15th February, 1868.

Shortly before taking office in 1857, he wrote to Lord Malmesbury :

"That a Conservative party should have held together at all under such circumstances is rather to be wondered at, than that there should be apathy and indifference, when there is nothing to be fought for by the bulk of the party.

As to Disraeli's unpopularity, I see it and regret it; and especially regret that he does not see more of the party in private; but they could not do without him, even if there were anyone ready and able to take his place. For myself, I never was ambitious of office, and am not likely to become more so as I grow older; but I am now, as I have been, ready to accept the responsibility of it, if I see a chance, not only of taking it, but of keeping it."

In his first two administrations Lord Derby was distinctly a Premier upon sufferance, a passing stop-gap between two Liberal Governments. As he himself said, he was ever ready to sacrifice himself for the good of his party. In 1868 he retired finally from public life. The best description of his public career is summed up in the well-known lines of the first Lord Lytton:

The cultured chief, irregularly great,
Frank, haughty, rash, the Rupert of debate.

He survived his retirement only a year and a few months, dying in October, 1869, at the age of seventy.

The Earl of Aberdeen formed a Coalition Ministry on the resignation of the first Derby Administration in 1852. Lord Aberdeen was born in 1784. He was educated at Harrow and Cambridge. After leaving Cambridge, he travelled a good deal abroad. As a wealthy young British nobleman, he found an entrance into the best circles of foreign society. He was soon afterwards accredited to the Austrian Court. Up to the entry of the allied forces into Paris, his lordship was nominally, though perhaps not practically, the leading representative of Great Britain in the allied camp. He upheld the interests of his country with success and credit.

In 1828 he was Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs under the Duke of Wellington. Soon afterwards he was visited by a series of domestic calamities. In 1829 Lady Alice, the last of his three daughters by his first marriage, died of consumption. Four years later his wife died, and the year following the only daughter of the second marriage died also.

In 1852, on the defeat of Mr. Disraeli's budget, Lord Derby resigned, and Lord Aberdeen was requested by the Queen to form a Ministry. Then followed the difficulty with Russia, culminating in the Crimean War. Lord Aberdeen seemed unable to credit the hostile intentions of the Czar, even after the failure of the negotiations which followed the despatch of the Vienna Note. He refused to

entertain warlike forecasts. Lord Palmerston, a week or two later, made an ineffectual attempt to persuade the Cabinet to send the fleet to the Bosphorus without further delay. "I think our position," were Palmerston's words on July 7th, "waiting timidly and submissively at the back door, whilst Russia is violently threatening and arrogantly forcing her way into the house, is unwise, with a view to a peaceful settlement." Lord Aberdeen believed in the "moderation" of a despot who took no pains to disguise his sovereign contempt for "les chiens Turcs." The result we know. Britain was drawn into the war. The reverses suffered were due largely to the maladministration of the War Office. For this Lord Aberdeen was not directly responsible; but upon him fell the responsibility of failure.

The hesitating policy of the Aberdeen Government created great indignation throughout the country. Mr. Roebuck introduced a notice of motion in the House of Commons, censuring the Ministry. The notice, which was cheered by Radicals and Tories alike, was to "inquire into the condition of our Army before Sebastopol, and into the conduct of those Departments of the Government whose duty it has been to minister to the wants of that Army." After a protracted and heated debate, the motion was carried in a House of 453 members by the sweeping majority of 157.

The following admission by Lord John Russell was of itself sufficient to have sealed the fate of the Ministry: "Sir, I must say that there is something, with all the official knowledge to which I had access, that to me is inexplicable in the state of our Army. If I had been told, as a reason against the expedition to the Crimea last year, that your troops would be seven miles from the sea, and that—at that seven miles distance—they would be in want of food, of clothing, and of shelter to such a degree that they would perish at the rate of from ninety to a hundred a day, I should have considered such a prediction as utterly preposterous, and such a picture of the expedition as entirely fanciful and absurd. We are all, however, forced to confess the notoriety of that melancholy state of things."

"The division was curious," wrote Greville. "Some seventy or eighty Whigs, ordinary supporters of the Government, voted against them, and all the Tories except about six or seven." There was no mistaking the mandate either of Parliament or of the people. Lord Aberdeen on the 30th of January, 1855, went down to Windsor and laid his resignation before the Queen. A writer in the "Quarterly" says: "To our mind the strongest condemnation of Lord Aberdeen's

policy as a statesman, and at the same time the strongest vindication of his conduct as a man of honor, is to be found in a letter which he wrote some few years later to an intimate College friend, Mr. Hudson Gurney.

"You are quite right," he said, "in supposing that I look back with satisfaction to the efforts made by me to preserve peace. My only cause of regret is that when I found this to be impossible I did not retire at once instead of allowing myself to be dragged into a war which, although strictly justifiable in itself, was most unwise and unnecessary. All this will be acknowledged some day; but the worst of it is that it will require fifty years before men's eyes are opened to the truth."

The Queen parted from Lord Aberdeen with regret. "She wishes," so the Queen wrote, "to say what a pang it is for her to separate from so kind and dear and valued a friend as Lord Aberdeen has ever been to her since she has known him. The day he became her Prime Minister was a very happy one for her; and throughout his Ministry he has ever been the kindest and wisest adviser, one to whom she could apply for advice on all, and trifling occasions even. This she is sure he will still ever be, but the losing him as the first adviser in her Government is very painful."

Lord Aberdeen's health gradually broke down after his retirement. He died in 1860 at the age of 76. He was the grandfather of Lord Aberdeen, the present Governor-General of the Dominion of Canada. The Governor-General's brother George succeeded to the title in March, 1864. He travelled extensively; became a merchant seaman; later on he became chief mate of the *Hero*. In 1870 he was accidentally drowned. The claim of the present Lord Aberdeen to the succession was allowed by the House of Lords on the 3rd of May, 1872.

Henry John Temple, Viscount Palmerston, became Prime Minister on the collapse of Lord Aberdeen's Ministry. Lord Palmerston served a long apprenticeship in the House of Commons and in the Government offices—nearly half a century—before his election to the Premiership. Elected to Parliament in 1807, when twenty-three years old, he gave no great promise of any oratorical ability, but he displayed very remarkable aptitude for official duties.

From first to last, his tenure at the Foreign Office covered a period of nearly twenty years. Though he made serious mistakes, he also made despots in every part of the world afraid of him; whilst struggling nationalities felt that the

great British Minister was not oblivious of the claims of justice, or deaf to the appeal for mercy.

In writing of the Eastern question, he said :

"In regard to the Turks themselves, may I venture to observe that the genius of their manners and conversation is that of yielding everything at first? They begin by saying, 'Good, yes!' But when you come to the matter in question and to its details you will find all those fine expressions mean nothing. Like all people in a weak position, they respect you according to their opinion of your *force*. If, however, you wish that force to have a permanent influence and to be unaccompanied by dislike, you must blend its exercise with justice; and if you wish to arrive at a quick result through all that ambuscade of intrigues and doubts and fears and prejudices which will be sure to be secretly formed against it, you must tell the Turk what he is to do, why he is to do it, when he is to do it, and show him that you only ask quietly and reasonably what you have a right to demand. In this way, and this way alone, you will do business with him. If he sees you act thus, he will not only agree with you, but rely upon you."

Great Britain's policy in dealing with the Turks has not always been based on these lines.

Palmerston's policy was clearly set forth on more than one occasion. During one memorable debate he held the House spell-bound from the dusk of one day to the dawn of the next. In a speech of extraordinary force from a man who never aspired to rhetoric or even eloquence, he reached the zenith of his power and fame. In the peroration of his speech he said: "As the Roman in days of old held himself free from indignity when he could say '*Civis Romanus sum*;' so also a British subject, in whatever land he may be, shall feel confident that the watchful eye and the strong arm of England will protect him against injustice and wrong."

That was the key-note of Lord Palmerston's political life—his country first, last, and all the time. Great Britain ready to defy the world, if need be, in a righteous cause.

For twenty-five years Lord Palmerston was one of the most popular men in the country. As a general thing he was lucky. Lord Macaulay once wrote in his journal:

"Excellent speech of Palmerston's! What a knack he has of falling on his feet! I never will believe after this that there is any scrape out of which his

cleverness and good fortune will not extricate him. And I rejoice in his luck most sincerely; for though he now and then trips, he is an excellent Minister, and I cannot bear the thought of his being a sacrifice to the spite of other powers."

At times his strong self-will and impatience of restraint led him to do things which irritated his colleagues and displeased his Queen. In the autumn of 1851 Louis Kossuth arrived in England, and met with an enthusiastic reception. Lord Palmerston was then at the Foreign Office. Contrary to the wishes of the Queen and the Prime Minister, deputations were admitted, and addresses were presented, thanking Palmerston for his services in the cause of humanity, whilst in the same breath allusions were made to the Emperors of Austria and Russia as "odious and detestable assassins." Later on he caused serious friction with France by recognizing the *coup d'etat* of Louis Napoleon without consulting his colleagues or the Court. This was too serious a matter to be overlooked. Lord Palmerston was dismissed. But he did not worry over his dismissal. He knew his policy was popular in the country; that he would soon be back again in office.

Lord Palmerston was succeeded in the Foreign Office by Lord Granville. The interview between the outgoing and the incoming members is thus recorded in Greville's diary: "Yesterday Granville was with Lord Palmerston for three hours. Palmerston received him with the greatest cordiality and good humor. 'Ah, how are you, Granville? Well, you have got a very interesting office, but you will find it very laborious; seven or eight hours' work every day will be necessary for the current business, besides the extraordinary and the parliamentary, and with less than that you will fall into arrears.' He then entered into a complete history of our diplomacy, gave him every sort of information and advice, spoke of the Court without bitterness, and, in strong terms of the Queen's 'sagacity,' ended by desiring Granville would apply to him when he pleased for any information or assistance he could give him."

With the downfall of the Aberdeen Ministry in 1855 came Palmerston's opportunity. The Queen, not unmindful of Palmerston's evidences of strong self-will, was not anxious to call him to the Premiership. Her Majesty's first choice was Lord Derby, but his efforts to form an administration proved unavailing. Lord John Russell was then sent for, but in his case, also, sufficient promises of support were not forthcoming. In the meantime the cry of the country was for Palmerston. Where was Palmerston?—the one man whose energy, activity and

vim (though he was then seventy) could extricate England from the difficulties in which, by the departing Cabinet, she had been involved. At length Palmerston was sent for. He consented to form a Ministry. He assumed office in February, 1855, with nearly all the members of the late Aberdeen Ministry in his Cabinet. In 1858, Lord Palmerston was defeated on bringing forward a Foreign Conspiracy Bill. The history of his defeat may be briefly summed up. Count Orsini, with other conspirators, threw three bombs on the night of January 14th, 1858, at the carriage of the Emperor and Empress of France as they were proceeding to the opera, in Paris. The Emperor and Empress escaped unhurt, but ten persons were killed and many wounded. The bombs had been manufactured in England; Orsini had arranged the dastardly outrage in London. The consequence was a fierce outbreak of indignation on the part of the French. The French Government demanded protection from the machinations of political refugees. Lord Palmerston brought forward a Foreign Conspiracy Bill. The feeling in the United Kingdom, already hostile to such a measure, grew pronounced when the French army, not content with congratulating the Emperor on his escape, proceeded to refer to Great Britain in insulting, and even threatening terms. The bill was thrown out by Parliament, and Lord Palmerston resigned in February, 1858.

Prince Albert, writing to Baron Stockmar at this time, says: "Here we are in the middle of a ministerial crisis and of a bad state of matters in politics. Lord Palmerston, who only two days ago had a majority, has been hit upon the French question. For this we have to thank the heedlessness of Louis Napoleon, who ought to have known better than to suffer England to be insulted by his colonels. The excitement in this country is tremendous, and at this moment Lord Palmerston is the most unpopular of men. It is quite ludicrous to hear his old worshippers talk of him. In the Lower House they would scarcely let him open his mouth, but regularly hooted him down. . . . Twenty thousand people assembled in Hyde Park yesterday, with the cry, 'Down with the French!' When this excitement has passed off, reason will assert itself."

Recalled in 1859, he formed his second Ministry, with himself as Premier, and Lord John Russell as Foreign Secretary. Lord Palmerston continued Prime Minister till his death, in 1865. Grave difficulties had to be faced during his second Premiership. The Franco-Austrian War, the Civil War in the United States, the foundation of the Italian Kingdom, the annexation of Nice and Savoy,

the Schleswig-Holstein campaign—all these questions excited extreme interest and bitter controversy in Great Britain. Yet throughout all these troublous times no serious attempt was made to dispute Lord Palmerston's supremacy. By common consent he was the right man in the right place as Premier of the United Kingdom. The vast majority of the people had confidence in his good sense, his honor, and, above all, his patriotism. He died in 1865, eighty-one years old. His remains are buried among the honored dead in Westminster Abbey.

Her Majesty's Parliament of 1837 contained many eminent men, who had already rendered great services to their country. It also contained many younger men who were destined to leave their names deeply graven on the tablets of British history. Among these latter were Benjamin Disraeli and William Ewart Gladstone. Disraeli was then thirty-two, Gladstone twenty-three years old. They were men of widely different abilities. Both men were destined to have remarkable careers. In time they both attained to the highest position in the gift of the British people. One of them has been dead sixteen years; he died honored, respected, and even loved by the British people. The other still lives; the Grand Old Man, in his eighty-ninth year, is honored and respected by all men in all countries, and loved, with a love that is deep in its intensity, by tens of thousands of his fellow subjects.

Benjamin Disraeli had few of the advantages of wealthy and influential connections which so materially aided other British statesmen of his generation. He had to fight his way forward and upward, step by step, against prejudice, abuse, and misrepresentation. From his father, Isaac Disraeli, the author of "The Curiosities of Literature," he inherited his literary talent.

Born in London, on the 21st of December, 1805, young Disraeli received an indifferent schooling at a private academy. In 1821 he was articled to a solicitor. At the age of twenty he published "Vivian Grey," the most successful novel of the year in which it appeared. Born a Jew, he was duly circumcised in a Jewish synagogue. At the age of twelve, he was baptized and received into the Christian Church at St. Andrews, Holborn. This freed him from the many disabilities under which the Jews then suffered. In 1837, at the age of thirty-two, he entered Parliament as M.P. for Maidstone, in Kent. From that moment his career was full of surprises. He became an English leader, alien from Englishmen both

in race and temperament; the head of the most English of English parties, though his ideas and his character were essentially un-English; the champion of the Church, though of Jewish race and birth; an ex-Radical who led the broken wing of the extreme Conservatives; an orator who for ten sessions was heard in Parliament with laughter or indifference; a man whose birthday is still kept, with primrose garlands, by the great ladies and gentlemen of England; who for



BENJAMIN DISRAELI, LORD BEACONSFIELD.

years was the butt of "Punch," whose dress, manners, ringlets, and physiognomy had all the characteristics of that flash vulgarity which was supposed to mark the Jew. Few men, starting from nothing to win everything, ever met with more discouragement at the outset. He had made his first attempt to enter Parliament in 1832, with Daniel O'Connell as one of his sponsors. Three years later

he quarreled with O'Connell, an encounter with shillelaghs rather than a passage of rapiers. As was generally the case with those who fell foul of O'Connell, the Irishman had the last word and left his adversary the ridicule. Young Disraeli had gone out of his way to make a violent attack on the agitator in an election speech. The latter had retorted in a bitter speech, calling him, in the polite language of political controversy in those days, "a miscreant," "a wretch," "a liar whose whole life is a living lie," and, finally, "the blasphemous descendant of the impenitent thief." For once, Disraeli's usually impassive nature had been stung into madness. Disraeli had vowed revenge. It was in the debate on the Irish election petitions, in 1837, that the member for Maidstone rose, to take his revenge—and to break down in his famous maiden speech. He followed the Irish Liberator, his former patron, now his bitter personal enemy. When O'Connell resumed his seat it was the new member for Maidstone who caught the Speaker's eye. The story of his failure has been often told. In spite of the habitual consideration of the House for a novice, the orator's style and manner were irresistible. The matter of his speech seemed almost as affected as his manner to an audience accustomed to the severe simplicity and unimpassioned delivery of model English orators. Smiles broke into laughter. At last the orator came to a premature standstill amid shouts of merriment. But the peroration of that maiden failure was the most remarkable of the many telling perorations delivered by the speaker. Looking full in the faces of his opponents, and raising his hands, he said: "I have begun several times many things, and I have often succeeded at last; aye, sir, and though I sit down now, the time will come when you will hear me!"

For the next few years Disraeli kept himself before the public rather as a writer than a speaker, and added more to his literary than his political reputation.

Two years after he entered Parliament, Disraeli drew a prize in the matrimonial lottery. In 1839 he married Mrs. Wyndham Lewis, the widow of his late colleague at Maidstone. The future Lady Beaconsfield was considerably older than her second husband. Many of his friends said she was not, either by birth or education, the sort of wife one would naturally select for a statesman ambitious of office, or rather of the power conferred by office. Yet the marriage turned out singularly happy for both parties to the contract. In the latter years of his life, after his wife's death, Mr. Disraeli, in speaking about some of her tastes to a

friend, summed up his comments in this happy phrase: "Hers was indeed a beautiful nature: she knew nothing of the past, she cared nothing about the future, she lived wholly in the present."

A story or two about this estimable lady may bear repeating. Some ten years after his marriage, when Disraeli was to make a great speech in the House of Commons, his wife drove down with him to Westminster. On getting into the carriage, one of her hands was crushed between the carriage door and the frame. The pain must have been terrible; but she said not a word, and maintained her composure till her husband had left her to go in by the Members' entrance. As he disappeared through the doorway she fainted away.

There was an unusual fund of gaiety in both Disraeli and his wife. When in Edinburgh, in 1867, he had an enthusiastic reception which delighted him. "We did not go to bed till very late," he said to a friend the next morning. "Mrs. Disraeli and I were so delighted that we danced a jig over it in our bedchamber." Mrs. Disraeli was then seventy-seven; her husband sixty-two.

In 1868, Mrs. Disraeli was created Countess of Beaconsfield in her own right by her Majesty. She died in 1872.

Sir Robert Peel's declaration, in 1845, of a change of policy on the Corn Laws, paralyzed his party. Here was the opportunity for an ambitious man such as Disraeli. By casting in his lot with the Protectionists, pre-eminence was assured him at once. They were a scattered mob hesitating between desperate and timid counsels. They offered the nucleus of a formidable force to a leader who knew how to rally them. They had position, consideration, wealth. At their back was an amount of feeling in the country inadequately represented even by their considerable numbers. They were struggling silently with the bitter indignation that sought an utterance.

Disraeli took advantage of his opportunity. He recalled Shakespeare's lines:

There is a tide in the affairs of men,
Which, taken at the flood, leads on to fortune.

Springing to his feet in the House of Commons, Disraeli proclaimed himself the leader of all those who desired to bolt from Sir Robert's old party. He made a speech which marked an epoch in our political history. With the most stinging sarcasm he pursued the great leader. Every word of his speech told. His attack on Sir Robert Peel, virulent and unrelenting, was looked upon by many

people, not as the legitimate assault of one political opponent upon another, but as the stroke of an assassin at the heart of a friend. The attack, however, was a masterstroke of policy. From that moment Disraeli was a power in the State.

His first Premiership was brief. On the resignation of the Earl of Derby in February, 1868, Mr. Disraeli reconstructed the Ministry. The ensuing elections gave a large majority to the Liberals. Mr. Disraeli's Ministry resigned in December.

During his retirement from office Mr. Disraeli found time to write "Lothair," one of the most popular of his novels. In 1880, when he again retired from office, he finished his last novel, "Endymion," for which his publisher paid him fifty thousand dollars.

In 1873, Mr. Disraeli threw down the gauntlet to his great antagonist Mr. Gladstone. In a letter to Lord Grey de Wilton, Disraeli severely censured the Gladstone Ministry as having harassed every trade, worried every profession, and assailed or menaced every class, institution, and species of property in the country. He ended by saying that the country had made up its mind to close this career of plundering and blundering. This letter was published on the 7th of October, 1873.

Mr. Gladstone accepted the challenge. In 1874 Mr. Gladstone surprised the country with the Greenwich letter, announcing a dissolution in mid-Session for no obvious or immediate reason. Impulsively he put his fate to the test. At the same time, with what had the semblance of a shortsighted piece of astuteness, he tendered the electors a bribe in the shape of a promised remission of the income-tax. The answer of the country was unmistakable. It seemed to vindicate the shrewdness with which Mr. Disraeli had suspected the results of a household suffrage. No longer the Minister of a minority existing by sufferance, Mr. Disraeli found himself with a compact working majority of over fifty. For the first time he had the free control of his actions.

Now at last he had reached his goal. By the death of Mr. Russell and the removal of all other possible competitors, Mr. Disraeli became the acknowledged chief of the Conservative party. With a strong and united majority in Parliament, he was, in fact as well as in name, the ruler of the British Empire. Disraeli was in his seventieth year when he thus obtained the object of his life's ambition.

As it happened, domestic measures were soon thrown into abeyance by

state of affairs in Europe and Asia. The Prime Minister found himself face to face with the troubles that were speedily to re-open the Eastern question and shake the Ottoman Empire to its foundations. In 1875 Lord Beaconsfield bought one-half of all the shares in the Suez Canal from the impecunious Khedive of Egypt, for twenty million of dollars. When the Suez Canal was contemplated, the British Government to speak both literally and metaphorically, had taken no stock in the enterprise; it would not even patronize its opening. Lord Palmerston was as incredulous of its success as Dr. Lardner had been about crossing the ocean by steam. British engineers were supposed to have demonstrated that the water-level of the Red Sea was higher than that of the Mediterranean. But the canal was now a success; it was the high-road to India; all Great Britain, therefore, applauded Lord Beaconsfield's purchase in 1875.

In 1876 the Prime Minister retired from the House of Commons. He entered the House of Lords as Earl of Beaconsfield. His last utterances in the House of Commons were in answer to questions upon Eastern affairs immediately before the close of the Session.

The Earl of Beaconsfield continued to act as Premier. He had asserted that while the Gladstone Ministry was busy with home reforms, Great Britain had been steadily losing influence abroad, if not deliberately effacing herself. Nothing could show more unpleasantly the slight regard in which she was held than the independent action of the "Three Emperors,"—of Germany, Austria and Russia,—when their Chancellors decided on the terms of the Berlin Memorandum, merely telegraphing to the Western Powers for their approval. The Premier now determined that Great Britain should play a part that became her, and not only speak, but be respectfully listened to.

The political atmosphere of the year 1876 was further clouded by reports of Bulgarian atrocities. These reports brought philanthropy into conflict with patriotism and evoked an outburst of generous indignation.

In May an insurrection broke out in Bulgaria. It was quickly suppressed; but not before the Bashi-Bazouks and other Turkish soldiers had massacred some ten thousand Bulgarians, and committed atrocious cruelties on defenceless women and children. Lord Beaconsfield's sagacity saved him from the trap which a Russian envoy was believed to have prepared with cold-blooded astuteness. From the first Disraeli never doubted the truth that the rising that was so savagely suppressed had been provoked by foreign agents. It was a deplorable accident,

but he decided it ought not to outweigh the considerations that had hitherto governed our policy in the East. People in Great Britain blamed the Turks for the atrocities. The wrath of the British people against the Turks burst into a flame. Mr. Gladstone headed the popular feeling. In this he again pitted himself against his rival. The British Government remonstrated with the Turkish Government. Assurances were given that the Bashi-Bazouks should be restrained. Then Mr. Disraeli trumped his rival's trick by rousing in Britain a feeling of antagonism to Russia.

Russia, affecting indignation that nothing effectual was done by the united efforts of the Great Powers of Europe, declared that, whether the Treaty of Paris allowed it or not, she was going to act by herself—punish the Turks, and defend the Christians. Then public opinion changed. Mr. Gladstone became to be regarded in Great Britain as the friend and instrument of Russia; Disraeli as the champion of Great Britain, and the enemy of Great Britain's enemy.

It was at this time that the word "jingo" came to be applied in a new sense. The war feeling was very strong in London. One of the numerous music-hall poets composed a ballad with the refrain:

We don't want to fight; but, by *jingo*, if we do,
We've got the ships, we've got the men, we've got the money, too.

This refrain was received night after night with the most tumultuous applause. It was heard on the streets; even in the clubs: it became the popular refrain of the hour. Lord Beaconsfield was accused of acting the part of a genuine "Jingo." The word was caught up at once by the public; the war enthusiasts became known as "Jingoes." The term is now applied in both Europe and America to those who advocate a spirited foreign policy. The *Saturday Review* said that the refrain "breathed defence, not defiance. It affirms that we have no desire for war, but that should war arise we have the means to face it."

Mr. Disraeli, now Lord Beaconsfield, was for maintaining Turkey, at all risks, as a barrier against Russia; Mr. Gladstone was for renouncing all responsibility for Turkey, and taking the consequences. Russia declared war against Turkey. The British fleet was sent to protect Constantinople. At length Russia forced Turkey to sign an armistice. Then the Treaty of San Stefano, which stipulated for almost complete independence for the Christian provinces of Turkey, and made Bulgaria, north and south of the Balkans, a great new State, with a port on the Ægean Sea, was signed by the Sultan and the Emperor.

Lord Beaconsfield would not consent to this treaty. He said that by the Treaty of Paris the affairs of Turkey and Turkish dependencies were to be interfered with by no one Power; that if any changes must be made, all the five Great Powers must agree. After much diplomatic discussion, it was resolved to submit the Treaty of San Stefano to a Congress to be held at Berlin. Lord Beaconsfield and Lord Salisbury attended the Congress as the representatives of the British Government.

The Congress held its first meeting at Berlin on the 13th January, 1878. The representatives present were: Germany, Prince Bismarck (who was elected President of the Congress); Russia, Prince Gortschakoff; Turkey, Alexander Kara-théodori; Great Britain, Lord Beaconsfield and the Marquis of Salisbury; Austria, Count Andrassy; France, M. Waddington; Italy, Count Corti.

The 20th and last meeting of the Congress, when the Treaty was signed, was on the 13th July, 1878.

The following are the principal articles of this historic treaty:

Articles 1-12—Bulgaria constituted an autonomous principality, tributary to the Sultar; the Balkans its southern limit; the Prince to be elected by the population, the election to be approved by the Sultan and other powers.

Articles 13-22—New Province of East Roumelia constituted; partially autonomous; boundaries defined; Christian Governor-General to be appointed by the Sultan.

Article 23—Bosnia and Herzegovina to be occupied and administered by Austria-Hungary.

Articles 24-30—Montenegro to be independent, with new frontiers.

Articles 31-39—Servia to be independent, with new frontiers.

Articles 40-49—Roumania to be independent.

Articles 50-54—Regulation of the navigation of the Danube, etc.

Articles 55-57—Legal reforms in Crete.

Article 58—Ardahan, Kars, and Batoum ceded to Russia by the Porte.

Article 59—Batoum to be a free commercial port.

Articles 61-62—The Porte engages to institute legal reforms, and to grant religious liberty.

Article 63—The Treaty of Paris (30th March, 1856), and of London (13th March, 1871), to remain in force when not modified by this treaty.

Lord Beaconsfield, on returning from the Berlin Conference, was received

with great demonstrations of approval. He was invested with the Knighthood of the Garter by the Queen. The freedom of London was conferred upon him. The *Times*, in an editorial, said he was at the pinnacle of ministerial renown; the favorite of his Sovereign; the idol of society.

It might have been well for Lord Beaconsfield had he made his appeal to the constituencies in the triumph of the return from Berlin. It is at least probable that he would have been sent back to power with an undiminished majority. As it was, he was over-persuaded to delay; that delay proved disastrous to him and his party. The Afghan and South Africa imbroglíos and other matters combined to make the Conservative Ministry unpopular. In the general election of 1880, the Conservatives were defeated.

Lord Beaconsfield, when he resigned, carried into his retirement the respect and admiration of the most honorable of his political opponents. Lord Hartington in one of his speeches said:

"It may be said that Lord Beaconsfield is ambitious. I should like to know what man who has attained the position which he has attained in the political life of his country is not actuated by feelings of ambition. No one certainly can attribute any mean or unworthy feelings to Lord Beaconsfield. We disagree with his politics, but we must admire the genius and talent which the man has shown under the disadvantages he has labored under. I firmly believe that Lord Beaconsfield has had in view what he believes to be the greatness of his country and the power of the Sovereign whom he serves."

Lord Beaconsfield met the fate of all party politicians. His party enemies could not find words bitter enough with which to mock him. His friends praised him as a very king of men.

In a letter written in the spring of 1867, Lord Houghton refers to Mr. Gladstone as being "quite awed" for the moment by the "diabolical cleverness of Dizzy."

The *Fortnightly Review* published a series of intensely bitter articles against him two years before his death. The writer divided his career into three epochs. From 1826 to 1837, the era of preparation. From 1837 to 1852, the era of struggle, when in Parliament he tried to gain, first toleration, then recognition, and then eminence. From 1852 to 1878, when he stood victorious and triumphant, acknowledged at last to be the greatest man in England of his day.

This unfriendly critic, writing of the Mr. Disraeli of 1837 to 1852, says that "he

began by wearing the livery of Peel ; then, with ribbons in his hat and a whistle in his mouth, masqueraded as a rural swain, dancing with his Young England companions round a maypole ; and finally, in the breeches and top-boots of a stage squire, he smacked his hunting-whip against his thigh, and denounced the villainy of the traitor Peel, who had deceived him and other simple-minded country gentlemen into believing that he was a protectionist and a friend of the land and the corn laws, while he was nothing but a manufacturer and a free-trader. Lord Beaconsfield's rapid changes of costume and character resemble those of the elder and younger Mathews in some of their most startling transformations."

"The most wonderful thing," wrote Bishop Wilberforce, a great friend of Mr. Gladstone's, "is the rise of Disraeli. It is not the mere assertion of talent, as you hear so many say. It seems to me quite beside that. He has been able to teach the House of Commons almost to ignore Gladstone, and at present lords it over him."

James Anthony Froude writes: "As a statesman there was none like him before, and will be none hereafter. His career was the result of a combination of a peculiar character with peculiar circumstances, which is not likely to recur."

Lord Beaconsfield was an Imperialist ; there is no denying that. It was during his Ministry, in 1877, that the Queen assumed her new title of Empress of India. Imperial, Lord Beaconsfield said, meant ruling over many States, and her Majesty held imperial sway over the vast British Empire. The title, too, would settle certain vexed questions of Court etiquette, and on that account would be agreeable to her Majesty. It has proved, indeed, valuable in the administration of the affairs of India. The native princes and the native peoples understand the personal government of an Empress far better than that of Cabinets or a Company.

Because he was an Imperialist, Mr. Disraeli believed that the great future of America lay in the continued Union of North and South. He therefore sympathized with the North.

On his retirement from public life, he returned to his country seat at Hughenden ; but not for long. In less than two years after he quitted public life he died, April 19, 1881. He lies buried in the parish church at Hughenden, in Buckinghamshire.

While in Parliament his policy was a consistent effort directed towards definite ends, and having for its object the maintenance and augmentation of the Empire.

He was for avoiding even the appearance of weakness. He deliberately preferred the risk of war to making even trivial concessions if they could be represented as involving national humiliation.

A statue of him in his robes as an earl has been erected opposite Westminster Abbey. Mr. Gladstone, in asking the House of Commons to vote this public monument to the dead statesman, alluded to certain great qualities of character in Lord Beaconsfield, as extraordinary as his intellectual powers. These were his strong will, his long-sighted persistency of purpose, his remarkable power of self-government, and last, not least, his great parliamentary courage. "I have known," said Mr. Gladstone, "some score of Ministers, but never any two who were his equal in these respects."

Her Majesty testified her regard for the memory of her great Minister by the erection of a memorial tablet on the wall of Hugbenden Church. The inscription which it bears was written by the Queen herself. "To the dear and honored memory," so it runs, "of Benjamin, Earl of Beaconsfield, this memorial is placed by his grateful and affectionate Sovereign and friend, Victoria, R. I. 'Kings love him that speaketh right.'—Prov. xvi. 13."

William Ewart Gladstone, the "Grand Old Man" of the British Liberals, comes of a family long distinguished for business virtues, integrity, clear-sightedness, enterprise, prudence, and thrift.

Sir John Gladstone, the father, was a leading merchant in Liverpool, trafficking in all parts of the world, and owning large sugar plantations in Demerara.

In 1821, when twelve years of age, young William was sent to Eton College. It is the fashion in certain circles to-day to decry the education afforded by the higher English schools of fifty or sixty years ago: the moral tone was low, the intellectual training poor. Yet it is doubtful if the highly-lauded schools of to-day, in either England or America, are sending out men of stronger moral fibre or greater ability than did Eton and Oxford of sixty years ago. Arthur Hallam, the brilliant critic; Selwyn, the future Bishop of New Zealand; Manning, the future Cardinal—to name only a few who rose to eminence—were schoolfellows of the future British Prime Minister.

On going to Oxford, Mr. Gladstone soon made his mark in the debating union. The singular excellence, volume, and clearness of his voice added immensely to his powers as a speaker.



RT. HON. WILLIAM EWART GLADSTONE.
"The Grand Old Man."

Mr. Gladstone was only twenty-three when he was returned to Parliament by the Duke of Newcastle for the pocket-borough of Newark. He entered Parliament as the devoted adherent of Sir Robert Peel, the great Conservative leader. Peel's great knowledge of the world, his patriotism, his strong religious principles, seemed to his disciple the incarnation of statesmanship.

When the Queen ascended the throne, Mr. Gladstone had already had five years' experience in Parliament, and had served the Crown as a Minister.

From his first entrance into Parliament Mr. Gladstone made his mark. This was owing, very largely, to his great natural ability. He had also influential friends in Canning, Peel and the Duke of Newcastle.

Under Lord Aberdeen, in 1852, Mr. Gladstone was made Chancellor of the Exchequer. His speech on the introduction of his first budget distanced all expectation. He remained in office until the Cabinet of Lord Aberdeen dropped to pieces, under the stress and strain of the Crimean War. During that time the Mr. Gladstone of the first half of his parliamentary life was opposed to the Mr. Gladstone of the second. He was in alliance with the Turks, and opposed to Russia.

Mr. Gladstone's course in Parliament from 1855 to 1860 was somewhat erratic. His friends called it incomprehensible. "I cannot make out Gladstone," said one of them. He would—and he would not—join the Ministries of Lord Derby and Lord Palmerston. He deprecated the continuance of the war with Russia, after having taken a leading part in the Cabinet that brought it on.

By 1860 Mr. Gladstone had decided to be no longer a Conservative. Henceforth he would be a member of the Whig party—the declared opponent of Mr. Disraeli.

In 1862 Mr. Gladstone, in common with many of his countrymen, believed in the ultimate success of the Confederate States in the War of the Rebellion.

In 1865 Mr. Gladstone was rejected by the University of Oxford at the general election. After his rejection by the University of Oxford he declared himself in an address to the electors of South-west Lancashire, as "unmuzzled"—free to act, free to put his speculative theories into practice. That was enough. Englishmen do not like their representatives to be muzzled. South-west Lancashire elected Mr. Gladstone.

Mr. Gladstone's eccentricities had already attracted attention. Mr. Kinglake wrote of him: "If Mr. Gladstone was famous among us for the splendor of his

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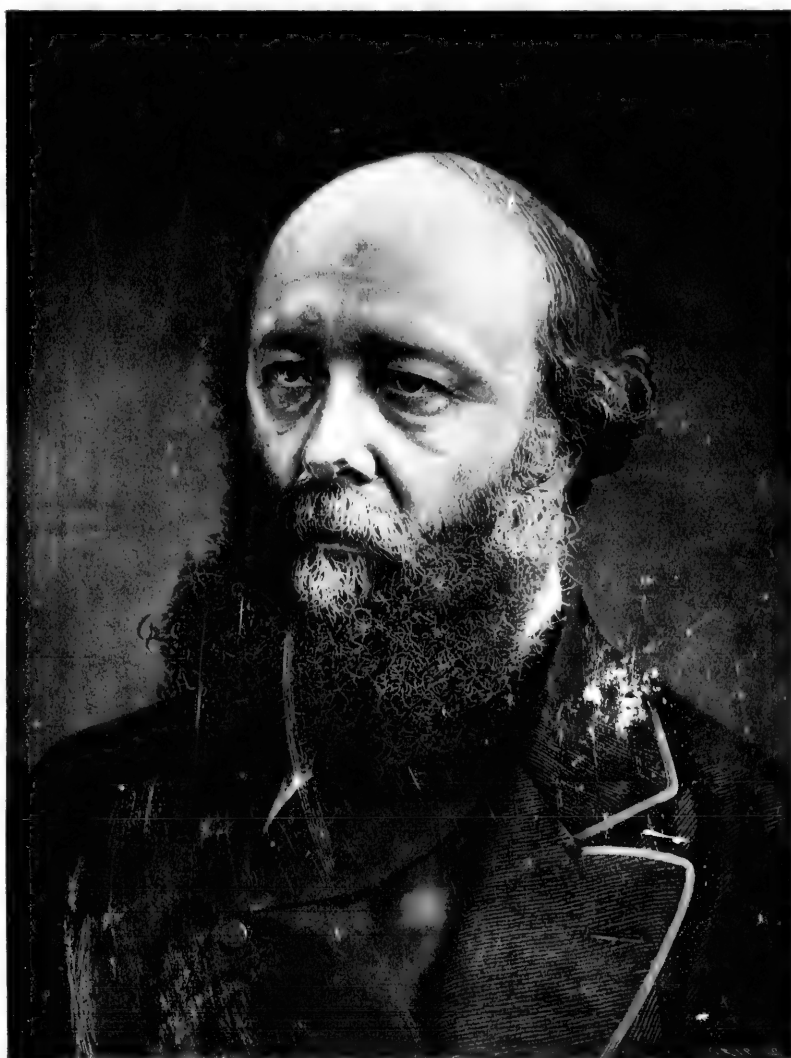
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THE MARQUIS OF SALISBURY.

eloquence, his unaffected piety, and for his blameless life, he was also celebrated far and wide for a more than common liveliness of conscience. He had once imagined it to be his duty to quit a Government, and to burst through strong ties of friendship and gratitude, by reason of a thin shade of difference on the subject of white or brown sugar. . . . His friends lived in dread of his virtues as tending to make him whimsical and unstable; and the practical politicians, perceiving he was not to be depended on for party purposes, and was bent upon none but lofty objects, used to look upon him as dangerous, used to call him behind his back—a good man, in the worst sense of the term.”

At the general election of 1868 Mr. Gladstone again stood for South-west Lancashire. After a fierce contest, the result of which excited the most intense interest throughout the country, he was defeated; but this defeat did not exclude him from the House of Commons. Greenwich had returned him by a large majority. The Liberals having a majority in the new House of Commons, Mr. Disraeli resigned. Mr. Gladstone proceeded to form his first Ministry. He was then in his sixtieth year. He remained in power for the six years 1868-74.

During those years Mr. Gladstone passed the following measures—time alone will tell whether for better or worse.

In 1869, a bill for the Disestablishment of the Church in Ireland.

In 1870, a Tenants' Rights Bill for Ireland. Government authorities were to fix the rent of any farm, concerning which they were applied to, for fifteen years. At the end of that time, if the tenant wished to give up his holding, the value of the improvements he had made were to be paid for by the landowner.

In 1870, the Elementary Education Act. Elementary national education was to be improved. Ratepayers were to be taxed to support the Government schools; Government inspectors were to visit all schools that accepted Government assistance.

In 1871, the Abolition of Purchase in the Army by the exercise of the Royal Prerogative, in consequence of an adverse vote by the House of Lords on the Army Regulation Bill. Officers in the army might no longer purchase their commissions. Before that time, if an officer desired to part with his commission, he might sell it to any qualified officer in the grade of rank beneath him. If he died in the service, his commission lapsed to the Government, but his widow and children were pensioned.

In 1871, the act abolishing religious tests in the Universities was passed.

In 1872, the ballot, guarded by many precautions to secure secrecy, was granted.

The Queen, of course, was deeply interested in the disestablishment question.

Bishop Wilberforce accompanied Mr. Gladstone to Windsor, when he went to kiss hands on his appointment as Prime Minister.

"Mr. Gladstone is a friend of yours," the Queen said to him in colloquial phrase; "I am sorry he has started this about the Irish Church." Mr. Gladstone, however was determined to push the bill through. At the same time, the Queen was aware of the strong and hostile feeling of the English prelates and of the Conservative party in the House of Lords against the bill. The Queen appealed to Archbishop Tait, Primate of all England, in a letter full of care for the lofty interests she had sworn by her coronation oath to guard.

"OSBORNE, 15th February, 1869.

"The Queen must write a few lines to the Archbishop of Canterbury on the subject of the Irish Church, which makes her very anxious.

"... The Queen has seen Mr. Gladstone, who shows the most conciliatory disposition. He seems to be really moderate in his views, and anxious, so far as he can properly and consistently do so, to meet the objections of those who would maintain the Irish Church. He at once assured the Queen of his readiness—indeed, his anxiety—to meet the Archbishop and to communicate freely with him on the subject of this important question, and the Queen must express her earnest hope that the Archbishop will meet him in the same spirit. The Government can do nothing that would tend to raise a suspicion of their sincerity in proposing to disestablish the Irish Church, and to withdraw all State endowments from all religious communions in Ireland; but, were these conditions accepted, all other matters connected with the question might, the Queen thinks, become the subject of discussion and negotiation. The Archbishop had best now communicate with Mr. Gladstone direct as to when he can see him."

The Archbishop sought an interview with Mr. Gladstone. The interview was satisfactory; but the Lords offered amendments which threatened to delay the passing of the Bill. Once more the Queen wrote to the Archbishop.

"WINDSOR CASTLE, 11th July, 1869.

"The Queen thanks the Archbishop very much for his letter. She is very sensible of the prudence and, at the same time, the anxiety for the welfare of the Irish Establishment which the Archbishop has manifested in his conduct throughout

the debates, and she will be very glad if the amendments which have been adopted at his suggestion lead to the settlement of the question; but to effect this, concessions, the Queen believes, will still have to be made on *both* sides. The Queen must say that she cannot view without alarm the possible consequences of another year of agitation on the Irish Church, and she would ask the Archbishop seriously to consider, in case the concessions to which the Government may agree should not go so far as he may himself wish, whether the postponement of the settlement for another year would not be likely to result in worse rather than in better terms for the Church. The Queen trusts, therefore, that the Archbishop will himself consider, and, as far as he can, endeavor to induce others to consider, any concessions that may be offered by the House of Commons, in the most conciliatory spirit . . . "

In the end the Bill passed. Irish disestablishment meant, not that the tithes were to be turned over to the Roman Catholic Church, but that they were to be collected, and spent in endowing secular institutions for the benefit of the people. The rectors of parishes retained church buildings. In other respects the Church in Ireland was placed on a voluntary system, the same as Protestant Dissenters or Roman Catholics.

Of necessity there will always be great differences of opinion on such a question as this. Mr. Gladstone undoubtedly believed that he was doing a good work in disestablishing the Church in Ireland. Twenty-four years later a great meeting was held in St. James' Hall, London, to protest against the Welsh Suspensory Bill and in defence of the English National Church. At that meeting the Archbishop of Dublin was asked what had been the effect of the disestablishment of the Church in Ireland. His reply in effect was, that the result of the disestablishment had been most disastrous to the morals of the people. Instead of satisfying the malcontents, disestablishment had had the opposite effect. The malcontents had seen the Church legally plundered of its endowments. That had familiarised them with the idea that other institutions might be plundered. The Church had been plundered. Why not the landlords? Hence their contempt for all law was increased. The result they had witnessed in the continued and continuous attacks on the rights of property, on the rights of all who did not or would not agree with the malcontents.

In 1873 Mr. Gladstone introduced the Irish University Bill. It was opposed by the Irish Roman Catholic members, who, voting with the Conservatives,

caused its rejection. Mr. Disraeli was sent for; he declined to take office with the House as then constituted. Mr. Gladstone, though with reluctance, undertook to resume office. Six months later, in January, 1874, he suddenly dissolved Parliament.

At the general election which ensued, the votes were, for the first time, taken by secret ballot. The result was a great surprise. The Liberal party was shattered as by a thunderbolt. In 1868 the Liberals had been elected by a majority of about 114. In 1874 the Conservatives were elected by a majority of about 50. The returns showed 351 Conservatives and 302 Liberals, inclusive of Home Rulers, elected. Mr. Gladstone bowed to the inevitable. He at once gave place to Mr. Disraeli.

From 1874, when the Liberal Ministry went out of office, Mr. Gladstone assumed a more aggressive position as the champion of Ireland. In the autumn of 1877 he paid a visit to Ireland, and was presented with the freedom of the city of Dublin.

Daniel O'Connell, the great Liberator, was dead; his memory was perpetuated in a fine monument at Dublin. The spirit of O'Connell was still alive in the hearts of his countrymen. Unhappily those who came after him adopted measures to attain their end which O'Connell would have scorned to use.

Mr. Gladstone was moved to take an active interest in Irish affairs, not alone by personal inspection, but by reports of men whose opinions carried great weight. Among those was Mr. John Stuart Blackie. Mr. Blackie visited Ireland in 1874. He made excursions into various parts of the country. "Everywhere in this country," he wrote; "the memorials meet us of blood and bungling, of stupidity and swindling. One needs only to travel here to forgive the Irish all their follies."

In 1883 Mr. Blackie again visited Ireland. Here he gave himself to the study of the new land laws. At Dromore Castle he had an opportunity of attending a meeting of the Land Commissioners' Court. All he saw confirmed his earlier impressions. "But," he wrote, "I found the 'oppressors' very kindly hosts."

Mr. John A. O'Shea, in his "Roundabout Recollections" relates a story of a Dublin barber who had satisfied himself that the Bard of Avon was sound on the Irish question. "He shook hands with me again," writes Mr. O'Shea, "and stumped me by asking if I knew Shakespeare's works. I cannot say I know them as Porson knew Greek, and I had to admit I was unable to tell the names

of all the pieces from which he had been distributing extracts, and that I was ignorant of the lines in which the bard has made his pronouncement in Elizabeth's reign on the Irish question in the reign of Victoria. 'In "Pericles, Prince of Tyre," cried the character triumphantly, 'Act two, scene one; Pentapolis, an open place by the sea-side. I speak by the book.' And then, assuming a confidential visage, he murmured in low, earnest accents as follows: 'Dost marvel how fishes live in the sea? Why, as men do a-land; the great ones eat up the little ones. I can compare our rich misers to nothing so fitly as a whale; a' plays and tumbles, driving the poor fry before them, and at last devours them all at a mouthful. Such whales have I heard on a' the land, who never leave gaping till they've swallowed the whole parish, church, steeple, bells and all.'"

Mr. Gladstone took an active part in the agitation respecting the massacres in Bulgaria. He strenuously opposed, both in and out of Parliament, the policy of the Conservative Government, which resulted in the Treaty of Berlin and the signing of the Anglo-Turkish Convention.

The famous Midlothian campaigns of 1879-80 have passed into history. Early in 1879 Mr. Gladstone was invited to become the Liberal candidate for Midlothian. The crowning incident of the electoral campaign in the ensuing Parliamentary recess was his visit to Scotland in connection with his purpose of contesting that county at the general election. He set out from Liverpool for Edinburgh on Nov. 24. From that date, with the exception of two days rest at Taymouth Castle, his life, till his return to Hawarden on Dec. 9, was a long succession of enthusiastic receptions and unwearied speech-making in condemnation of the policy of the Conservative Government. In 1880, he repeated the tour, with almost equal success.

In the election that immediately followed, Mr. Gladstone came back to power, having triumphantly overthrown the policy of Lord Beaconsfield. A curious fact may here be noted. Six years seems to be the limit the British electorate think a Ministry should be in power. In six years, at the most, the usefulness of a Ministry seems to be past. Perhaps the people think that after six years of the hard, straining work required of a British Prime Minister, the Minister is entitled to a rest. After being six years in office Mr. Disraeli was retired.

In 1880 Mr. Gladstone succeeded to a heritage not at all to his mind. There was impending war in South Africa. There was trouble looming on the Egypt-

tian horizon. Soon the horizon darkened both at home and abroad. The British Government was drawn into wars in South Africa and North Africa. The disaffection in Ireland waged fast and furious. Lord Frederick Cavendish and Mr. Burke were foully assassinated in Phoenix Park, Dublin. All these things combined to make the Government unpopular in the country.

Finally Mr. Gladstone had to face a storm of public disapproval on account of the failure of the relief expedition to reach Khartoum in time to save the heroic Gordon. In 1885 he raised a further storm of opposition and disapproval by the



THE PHOENIX PARK, DUBLIN.

introduction of a bill for giving Home Rule to Ireland. The House of Commons refused to support him. He resigned.

Lord Salisbury and a Tory Ministry reigned in his stead.

This, the first Ministry of Lord Salisbury, lasted only eight months—from June, 1835, to January, 1886.

Mr. Gladstone again came back to power in February, 1886. He resigned in the following July, in consequence of a majority of thirty votes being cast against his Irish Home Rule Bill.

For many years Mr. Gladstone's influence over his followers was remarkable. His party followed him blindly until 1886. His persistency in introducing his Irish Home Rule Bill in 1886 effectually split up the Liberal party. Mr. Gladstone was warned that such would be the result; but he could not be induced to withdraw. He had set himself the task of securing Home Rule for Ireland. No considerations of political expediency should induce him to stay his hand. The result no doubt surprised him. Many thousands of hitherto Gladstonian Liberals ranged themselves under the Liberal-Unionist banner, giving their support to the party whose watchword was "A United Empire."

Lord Salisbury's second Ministry came into office in July, 1886, and lasted till August, 1892—the talismanic period of six years!

Mr. Gladstone's fourth Ministry was formed in August, 1892. In 1894 Mr. Gladstone formally retired from public life.

Although eighty-five years old on his final retirement, Mr. Gladstone continued to take a lively interest in affairs. His energy and enthusiasm had passed into a proverb. Lord Randolph Churchill once laughingly said that Mr. Gladstone would perhaps be found to be in his prime somewhere about the middle of the next century!

Mr. Gladstone, like his great rival, Mr. Disraeli, before him, has been subjected to the extremes of praise and blame. Mr. Henry Labouchere, the wealthy Radical M.P., first applied the term "Grand Old Man" to Mr. Gladstone in 1881. The phrase became popular with Mr. Gladstone's admirers: it was at once generally adopted.

An old friend of Mr. Gladstone's, speaking of the great change in that gentleman's politics from high Toryism in 1834 to advanced Radicalism at the present day, has said:

"I hardly see that he has changed more than a man would do who swims with the tide. The change occasioned in England by the railways between 1830 and 1845 was wonderful. Then you must not forget the accession of the Queen, which put a stop to disloyalty almost entirely. Before she came to the throne numbers of men belonging to the Whig families were quite ready to become Republicans. It was this growing republicanism which gave so much uneasiness to young men like Gladstone, who dissociated the idea of monarchy from the personality of kings. As soon as Queen Victoria ascended the throne the change in public opinion was almost incredible. And the restoration of the people's

affections towards their Sovereign gave reformers much firmer standing-ground than they possessed before. They took up a position which proved that what they aimed at was reform, not revolution."

On the other hand, this is the indictment drawn up against Mr. Gladstone by Mademoiselle Marie Dronsart, a recent French critic of the late Premier's career:

"Mr. Gladstone has touched everything, and disturbed all he touched. As his friend Wilberforce predicted, he has labored to destroy everything that once was dear to him. He has imperilled the Church, whose most dutiful servant he still claims to be. He has imperilled the throne, 'the most illustrious on earth,' as he wrote to the poor young Duke of Clarence. He has imperilled the unity of the empire, which he says is part of his being, of his flesh and of his blood. He has imperilled the House of Lords, which, according to Mr. Russell, he respects. He has stimulated the war of classes as it has never before been stimulated in England. He has attacked the principles on which property is based, and sown dissension from a full hand, while he has preached peace and good-will."

In everything he did, however, Mr. Gladstone's friends felt he was sincere; that he acted from conviction. The late Dean of St. Paul's administered a stern rebuke to someone who happened to assert in his presence that Mr. Gladstone was a thoroughly insincere man. Rising from his chair, pale with emotion, the Dean exclaimed, evidently with the strongest suppression of personal feeling: "Insincere! Sir, I tell you that to my knowledge Mr. Gladstone goes from communion with God to the great affairs of State."

Great as was his own popularity, Mr. Gladstone never attempted to overshadow the popularity of the Crown.

He had a very high opinion of the Prince Consort. "It would be difficult to find," he said of the Prince, "anywhere, a model of life more highly organised, more thoroughly and compactly ordered."

In later years, when a word from him would have rallied all the forces of his party against unpopular grants to the Queen's children and relatives, Mr. Gladstone placed his most fervid and impassioned eloquence at the service of the Crown.

In 1885 Mr. Gladstone was offered, but declined, an earldom.

Mr. Gladstone's life stands out prominently as an example for young men. He was emphatically a man who improved his opportunities. He was a man who abhorred idleness. Although his Parliamentary duties—his life as an active

politician and the leader of a great Party—took up a great deal of his time, he yet found leisure to write on a great variety of subjects. Lines dropped from his pen as readily as words from his lips. For nearly forty years he has been a doughty champion, with pen and voice, of Liberal principles, as he understands them. He has been also a valiant champion of what the world calls the Protestant religion. Twenty-three years ago he braved the "Thunders of the Vatican" with his tracts on the Vatican Decrees—since collected and published under the title of "Rome and the Newest Fashions in Religion." He has written on Homer and the Homeric Age, for the classical scholar. He has written on Bishop Butler for the cleric. He has written his "Gleanings of Past Years," in lighter strain, for the people. It is quite evident that a vast number of people are still hero-worshippers. Mr. Gladstone has been the hero of many a humble and of many a great mind. If Mr. Gladstone said such-and-such a work was worth reading, that was enough. Every one of his worshippers straightway rushed to the bookstalls or the libraries for the work. More than one struggling author has sprung into immediate fame through the talismanic medium of a commendatory letter from William Ewart Gladstone.

Sir Henry Taylor relates an incident of Mr. Gladstone's wonderful versatility and power of application. Notwithstanding the number, weight and measure of the affairs of his office as Premier and Chancellor of the Exchequer, Mr. Gladstone managed to keep up with the literature of the day. Nay, more—he found time to read books few men would care to read, even if they had time. "I was," says Sir Henry Taylor, "reminded of this unusual combination of intensity with versatility on one of the few occasions I happened to meet with Mr. Gladstone during his term of office as Prime Minister. He asked me what I thought of two or three volumes of poetry recently published. I had never even heard of them. They were presentation copies sent him by obscure poets. He seemed, however, to be prepared to discuss their merits, had not my entire ignorance stopped the way."

A few words as to Mr. Gladstone's home life. In 1839 he married Miss Catherine Glynn, the daughter and heiress of Sir Stephen Richard Glynn, of Hawarden Castle, Flintshire, Wales. In 1874, on the death of the Baronet, the Castle passed into the possession of Mr. and Mrs. Gladstone. Hawarden is an unpronounceable word to an English tongue. Harden, with the sound of "a" as in "fall," or as if written Hawden, is as near as an English tongue

can get it. Before his retirement from public life, Mr. Gladstone took great interest in his beautiful estate. He was not a remote and silent landlord. He was frequently at home, talking with the tenants and the villagers, and taking an interest in the Literary or Young Men's Society of his little village.

To slightly alter Shakespeare's words, Mr. Gladstone, in his eighty-ninth year, may commune with himself and truthfully say :

My way of life
Is fallen into the sere, the yellow leaf ;
And that which should accompany old age,
As honour, love, obedience, troops of friends —
Thank God, I have them all !

Lord Rosebery became Prime Minister on Mr. Gladstone's resignation in March, 1894.

"The man of the future," were the words used by Mr. Gladstone in introducing the youngest member of his Cabinet to the Liberal party. The occasion was a mass-meeting at Manchester, on June 25, 1886. The Home Rule Bill had just been defeated, and a general election was at hand. Lord Rosebery had for a brief time been Foreign Secretary.

Archibald Philip Primrose was educated at Eton and at Christ Church, Oxford. While an undergraduate he formed the acquaintance of Disraeli and Gladstone. His father died in 1851. The young man had just attained his majority in 1868, and was about to seek a seat in the Commons, when his grandfather died, and he thus became a member of the House of Lords. He at once identified himself with the Liberal party, which was in a minority in that Chamber. As early as 1871 he was selected by Mr. Gladstone to make the speech seconding the Address in reply to the Speech from the Throne. Lord Rosebery was the companion of Mr. Gladstone in the famous Midlothian campaign of 1880. In 1881, he was made Under-Secretary of State for the Home Department. He served there less than two years, and then, after more than a year of idleness, was made First Commissioner of Works. In 1886, he was promoted to the high office of Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs. His tenure of office was brief; the Government was defeated on the Home Rule issue. He contributed largely to the success of the Gladstonian party at the general election of 1892. In the Ministry then formed he resumed his old place at the Foreign Office.

Lord Rosebery's Ministry resigned 22nd of June, 1895.

The Marquis of Salisbury formed his third Ministry 25th of June, 1895. This Ministry, with Lord Salisbury as Prime Minister and Foreign Secretary, is still directing the destinies of the British Empire. Mr. Arthur James Balfour is leader of the House of Commons. Mr. Joseph Chamberlain is Colonial Secretary.



LORD ROSEBERY.

The Irish policy of Lord Salisbury has been diametrically opposite to that of Mr. Gladstone. Mr. Gladstone's idea was to pacify by the concession of political privileges. Lord Salisbury's idea has been to pacify by promoting in all ways the material prosperity of the country.

A study of the Queen's relations with her Prime Ministers, with those in authority under her, with the public generally, will but serve to strengthen the idea that her Majesty has proved herself an accomplished diplomat. Attention to details has from her youth upwards been characteristic of the Queen. She had none of the unconscientious neglect of duty so marked in George IV. She has ever been natural, good-humored and cheerful—but still the Queen. Only the year after her accession, Greville pictures for us the preparations for the Royal dinner: "When the guests are all assembled the Queen comes in. . . . She generally takes the arm of the man of the highest rank, but on this occasion she went with Mr. Stephenson, the American (United States) Minister, (though he has no rank), which was very wisely done." Actions such as this, slight in themselves, have perhaps done more than anything else to preserve and increase her Majesty's deserved popularity.

Her Majesty has ever endeavored to cultivate that spirit of amity and friendliness which should distinguish the two great English-speaking nations of the world. At the time of the threatened rupture with the United States over the *Trent* affair, as we have recorded elsewhere, her Majesty undertook to suggest a recast of the message that blunt Lord John Russell had prepared for transmission to the President of the United States. At the time of the assassination of President Lincoln, her Majesty sent a holograph letter to Mrs. Lincoln—a touching letter of sympathy and condolence.

Her Majesty has been a most indefatigable worker. She has ever insisted on her Ministers submitting drafts of proposed letters and despatches to her before despatching the same.

This has entailed an amount of work which few can begin to appreciate. While the Prince Consort lived the Queen had his aid. He was her Private Secretary; the one arm on which she relied; the Permanent Prime Minister someone called him. But the Prince only assisted. The Queen was never a mere figure-head; since the Prince Consort's death her Majesty has had the entire supervision of affairs.

Another secret of the personal popularity of her Majesty is perhaps to be found in her readiness, at all times, to acknowledge the services of those who have distinguished themselves in diplomacy, on the battlefield, or, otherwise. Many instances of the favors thus granted by her Majesty have been already cited in this book. Another instance or two may be recorded.



RT. HON. JOSEPH CHAMBERLAIN.
Colonial Secretary. 1897.

Sir Bartle Frere was recalled from South Africa. He had disappointed the politicians at home. He had not disappointed the Queen. Sir Bartle's biographer tells us that when Frere arrived in London, Wessil Lodge, his house at Wimbledon, had been let. Frere and his family occupied a house in Hyde Park Gardens, lent them by an old friend. They had scarcely arrived when an invitation was received to visit the Prince of Wales at Abergeldie. Thither Frere went on the third day after his arrival, and met with a cordial and gracious reception from the Prince, and also from the Queen, who twice sent for him to Balmoral and showed him the greatest kindness.

Lord Roberts, in his recently published book, says: "On the 15th of October, 1880, I started for England, making, by the desire of the Viceroy, a detour to Simla, where Lord Ripon received me most graciously. To my great surprise and pleasure he gave me a letter from the Queen-Empress, written by her Majesty's own hand, conveying in the most gracious terms the Queen's satisfaction at the manner in which the service entrusted to me had been performed; thanks to the brave officers and men under my command; sorrow for those of her gallant soldiers who had fallen for Queen and country; and anxiety for the wounded."

Mr. John Stuart Blackie made it one of the great objects of his life to found a Chair of Celtic literature in the University of Edinburgh. Personal investigation had satisfied him that the schools consequent upon the new educational policy were, in all parts of the Highlands, sapping the very foundations of the Gaelic language. Manned by English-speaking teachers, they condemned the children who did not understand English to sit side by side with those who did, to read the same lessons, to profit by them as best they could. To little girls and boys who painfully learned to utter sounds which conveyed no meaning to them the hours at school were an unredeemed penance. The teacher had no means of relieving their futility, for a knowledge of Gaelic was not a necessary qualification for his post. At the expense of these early victims, however, the conviction was well stamped into the minds of the Highlanders that education, employment, success, depended upon losing the mother tongue and adopting that of the Sassenach law maker.

We hear much and with indignation of interference with the language of Poland, Finland, and such outlying lands of Imperial rule; but the process went on in the Highlands and Islands of Scotland with a slow, sure and implacable tyranny. To arrest its mischievous pressure, to save Gaelic from extinction, was as much

the aim of the "Apostle of the Celts" as was the mere academic rescue of its language and literature. Mr. Blackie addressed himself to a more concentrated study of these than hitherto. He communicated with every available scholar whose proficiency was by right of birth as well as by right of inclination. He sought out the local poets and archaeologists with whom remained the treasures of traditional lore. He translated passages from the Ossianic poems, and lyrical, heroic, or elegiac songs from the Highland "makers" of the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries. Mr. Campbell of Islay was one of his helpers. Alexander Nicolson, the loyalest Celt, the truest friend, the sweetest singer of his clan, gave him unwearied assistance in disentangling the historical from the mythical in the mass over which he pored.

Mr. Blackie continued unremitting in his exertions to found the Celtic Chair, as already mentioned. He began a world-wide propaganda. From Australia, from New Zealand, from Canada, from the United States, from other countries, contributions poured in. With every contribution, great and small, came the same general enthusiasm, the same rich meed of admiring encouragement, the same ardent gratitude from Scotchmen who were delighted with this effort to save their language.

Her Majesty the Queen was not found wanting in encouragement of this project or in financial assistance. One day Mr. Blackie found a letter commanding his presence at Inverary Castle, where the Queen was staying. Her Majesty wished to learn from his own lips the results which he had hitherto attained in advocating the Celtic Chair. His luggage had gone astray, and the summons was immediate. He was starting cheerfully, minus his dress clothes, when at the last moment his portmanteau appeared on a friendly wheelbarrow, and his confidence in the "natural course of things" was justified. He got safely through the audience. The Queen sent her birthday-book for his signature and motto the following morning. He wrote both Greek and Gaelic texts after his name. Her Majesty showed her practical sympathy by giving Mr. Blackie a check for a thousand dollars towards the endowment of the Chair.

In 1894, Mr. Adam Brown, of Hamilton, President of the Canadian Humane Society, wrote her Majesty, through the Governor-General, praying for her Majesty's approval of the prefix "Royal," so that the Society might be known as the "Royal Canadian Humane Association." The Marquis of Ripon, Secretary of State for the Colonies, advised his Excellency the Earl of Aberdeen that the

matter had been laid before the Queen, and that her Majesty approved of the prefix "Royal" and to the name, the "Royal Canadian Humane Association."

Her Majesty has had more than one illustration of the truth of the old adage that it is impossible to please everyone. An interchange of personal courtesy had taken place between the Queen and the Pope, enough, as it appeared, to arouse the suspicion of some of the extreme Evangelical party. In 1888, the Rt.-Hon. W. H. Smith received a letter in reference to this matter. His reply was full of sound common sense: "You ask me about the Queen and the Pope. For my own part I see no harm whatever in the little act of civility. If a R. C. lady was to make you a present of a picture on your birthday, and you in return gave her a little bit of silver-plate on her birthday, I should not say you were going to turn Roman. It is precisely the thing you would not do, if you had any idea of changing your faith. The poor Queen has about as much liking for Romanism as she has for Mohammedanism or Buddhism. She has many millions of Roman Catholic subjects as she has millions of the followers of Mohammed and Buddha, and she would be equally civil to any old gentleman professing either faith on such an occasion as the present; but it would be civility and nothing more."

CHAPTER XIII.

Some Royal Marriages.

Marriage of the Princess Royal and other Royal Princesses—Of the Prince of Wales—Of the Duke of Edinburgh and other Royal Dukes—The Royal Grandchildren.



FEW days after the blazing beacon on the hill above Balmoral had flashed the good news of the fall of Sebastopol, a Prince arrived at the Castle, "on wooing bent." It was the young Prince of Prussia, Frederick William, eldest nephew of the childless King of Prussia.

In a manly way he laid his proposals before the Queen and the Prince Consort. Though not unwilling to receive him as a prospective son-in-law, they were of opinion that the Princess Royal was too young yet to



QUEEN VICTORIA.

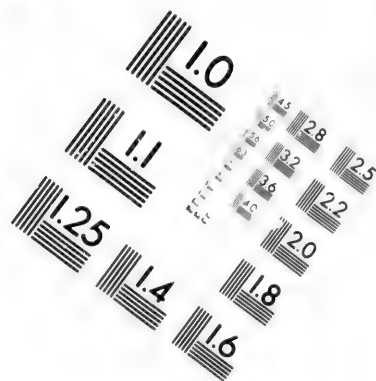
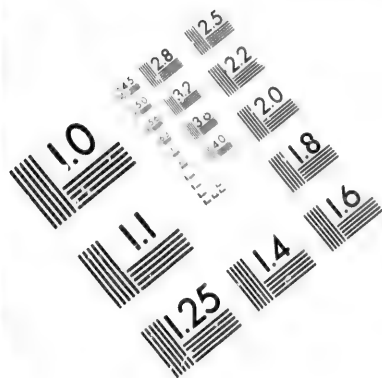
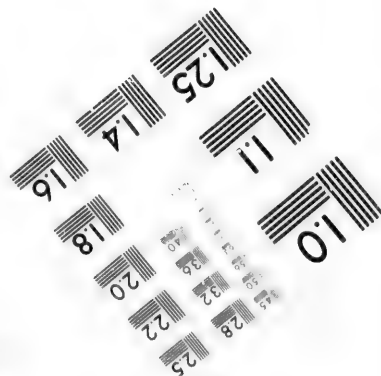
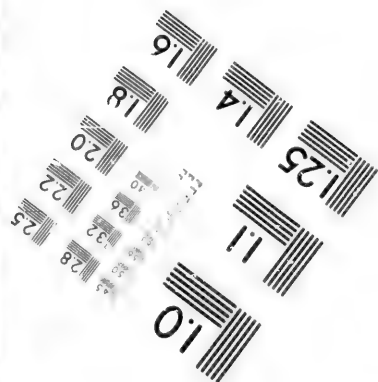
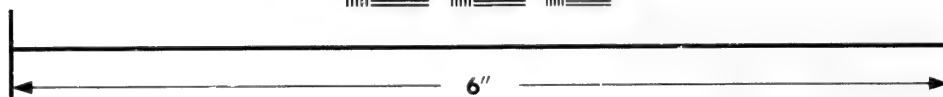
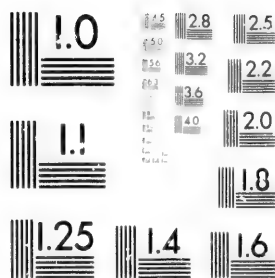


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think of marriage. Before he left Balmoral, however, he obtained permission to speak to the Princess.

The Queen writes: "During our ride up Craig-na-ban this afternoon he picked a piece of white heather (the emblem of good luck), which he gave to her; and this enabled him to make an allusion to his hopes and wishes, as they rode down Glen Girnock, which led to this happy conclusion."

The Princess Royal consenting, the two were betrothed.

Prince Albert wrote to Baron Stockmar: "The young people are passionately in love with each other, and the integrity, guilelessness, and disinterestedness of the Prince are quite touching."

In January, 1858, the marriage took place. Buckingham Palace was filled with noble guests. The King of the Belgians and his sons, the Prince of Prussia, the Duke and Duchess of Cobourg, and many others, were among the invited guests.

On the 25th, the wedding-day, the Queen wrote: "I felt as if I were being married over again myself, only much more nervous, for I had not that blessed feeling which I had then, which raises and supports one, of giving myself up for life to him whom I loved and worshipped then and forever."

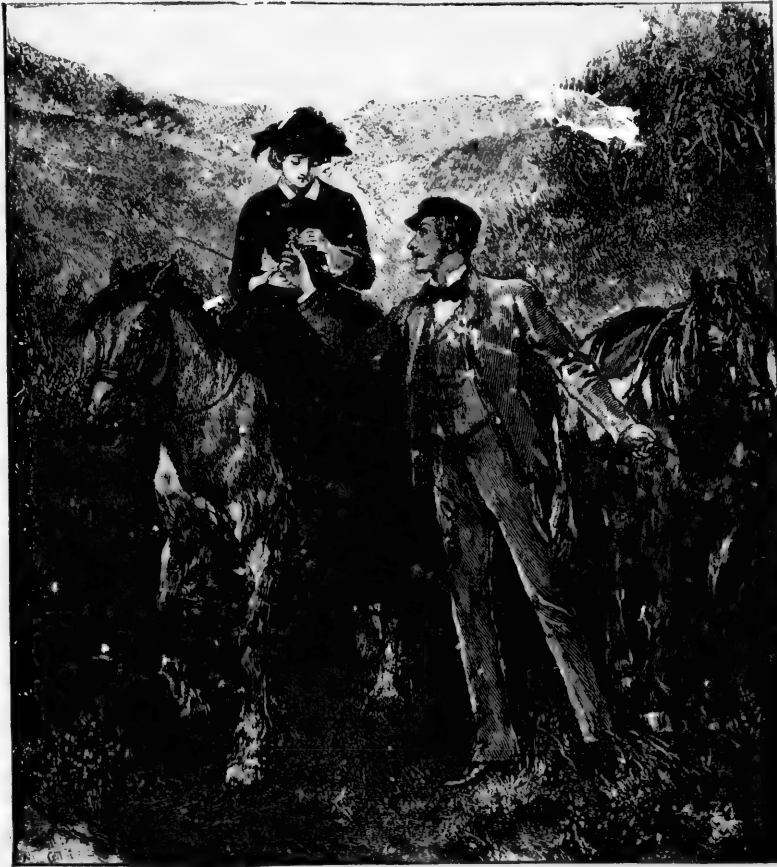
The marriage was solemnized with a magnificence worthy of the occasion. The bridal pair drove to Windsor for the honeymoon. On the 27th Prince Frederick William was invested with the Order of the Garter. Next day the Court, including the newly-married couple, went in State to her Majesty's theatre, where they were received with enthusiastic loyalty.

On the 30th, addresses from the City of London, and from other great towns of the kingdom, came pouring in, many of them accompanied by sumptuous gifts. Parliament granted a dowry of £40,000 and an annuity of £8,000.

Feb. 1st, the Queen wrote: "The last day of our dear child's being with us, which is incredible, and makes me at times feel sick at heart." Of their farewell her Majesty says: "Poor dear child, I clasped her in my arms, and blessed her, and knew not what to say. I kissed good Fritz, and pressed his hand again and again. He was unable to speak and tears were in his eyes."

The Prince Consort wrote to his daughter that the void she had left was not in his heart only but in his daily life. She had, he said, a man's head and child's heart.

In 1861, the Prince of Prussia, William I. succeeded his brother. Ten years



THE WOOING OF THE PRINCESS ROYAL.

later, after the conclusion of the Franco-Prussian War, he was proclaimed Emperor of Germany. His son, Frederick William, became "Crown Prince."

In 1888, the year of the "Three Emperors," William I. died, and his son succeeded him, under the title of Frederick III., just thirty years after his marriage with the Princess Royal of England.

He had reached the age of fifty-seven. His accession was hailed with bright hopes. No obstacle stood between him and one of the world's greatest thrones. The sceptre was in his grasp, but he could not hold it. He was a dying man. For three and a half months he lingered on. Then with sublime calm he passed away, bequeathing to mankind an example eloquent in its uncomplaining pathos.

Frederick III. seemed born to rule. In appearance and in demeanor his was a natural majesty that impressed. Troops under "Unser Fritz" became practically invincible. He was kindly in nature, gentle in manner, without pretension, without a trace of self-sufficiency. Our Princess Royal was happy in her father, "Albert the Good," happy too in her husband, "Frederick the Noble."

On July 1, 1862, the Princess Alice was married to Prince Louis of Hesse-Darmstadt, nephew of the reigning Grand Duke.

Princess Louise of Prussia, a life-long friend of the Princess Alice, records her first impressions of her thus: "She was at that time most graceful in appearance, charming, merry, amiable. Her cheerful disposition, and her great power of conversation, showed themselves early in the pleasantest manner, and she had a remarkable gift of making herself attractive to others. . . . A great vein of humor showed itself in her, as well as a certain sharpness in criticising people not congenial to her. . . . She was a great favorite with her brothers and sisters, though they knew she was fond of mischief. To a naturally engaging manner quite exceptional joyousness and power of showing affectionate emotion imparted an especial charm, which revealed it self in the fine lines of her face, in her graceful movements, and a certain inborn nobleness and dignity."

In 1859, the Queen wrote of her: "She is very good, sensible, amiable, and a real comfort to me. I shall not let her marry as long as I can reasonably delay her doing so."

In the following year Prince Louis was a guest at Windsor. After his departure the Prince Consort said to Baron Stockmar that there was no doubt that Prince Louis and the Princess Alice had formed a mutual liking.

In the autumn of the same year the Prince paid a second visit to England. On the 30th of November the Queen wrote in her Diary: ". . . After dinner, whilst talking to the gentlemen, I perceived Alice and Louis talking beside the fireplace more earnestly than usual, and when I passed to go to the other room, both came up to me, and Alice in much agitation said he had proposed to her, and he begged for my blessing. I could only squeeze his hand and say 'certainly,'



DOWAGER EMPRESS FREDERICK OF GERMANY.

and that we would see him in our room later. Got through the evening working as well as we could. Alice came to our room . . . agitated, but quiet . . . Albert sent for Louis to his room; he went first to him and then called Alice and me in . . . Louis has a warm, noble heart. We embraced our dear Alice and praised her much to him. He pressed and kissed my hand, and I embraced him. After talking a little we parted—a most touching, and to me most sacred moment."

In 1861, the Queen communicated to Parliament the contemplated marriage of the Princess. A dowry of £30,000, with an annuity of £6,000, was voted without a dissentient voice.

While superintending the preparations for the Princess Alice's future household, the Prince Consort fell ill and died. How bravely the Princess suppressed her own grief in order to help and comfort her mother we have already seen. The thought of her own future was for the time put aside. In accordance, however, with the wishes of the late Prince, the preparations for her marriage went on

At Osborne, on July the 1st, the marriage was solemnized.

On July the 9th the Prince and Princess Louis of Hesse left England. The following lines, which appeared in *Punch* at the time, well express the feelings of the British people :

Dear to us all by those calm, earnest eyes,
And early thought upon that fair young brow ;
Dearer for that where grief was heaviest, thou
Wert sunshine, till he passed where suns shall rise
And set no more : Thou, in affection wise
And strong, wert strength to her who even but now,
In the soft accents of thy bridal vow,
Heard music of her own heart's memories.

Too full of love to own a thought of pride
Is now thy gentle bosom ; so 'tis best :
Yet noble is thy choice, O, English bride !
And England hails the bridegroom and the guest
A friend—a friend well loved by him who died.
He blessed your troth : Your wedlock shall be blessed.

In 1863 an event of the greatest national importance took place, the marriage of the Prince of Wales.

Two years before he had met the young Princess of Denmark at Speyer and at Heidelberg. "The young people," wrote the Prince Consort, "seem to have taken a warm liking to each other."

In the following year the Queen proceeded to the continent to arrange with the parents of Princess Alexandra the preliminaries of the contemplated alliance. British public opinion was outspoken in its approval. Lady Palmerston, in a letter to Lord Houghton says: "The Prince of Wales' marriage seems to be in a fair train, and everybody says she is charming. I like the idea of a Danish

connection. We have had too much of Germany and Berlin and Cobourg, and this is returning to our old friends and a few honest people."

On the 26th of February, 1863, the Princess left Copenhagen, escorted by her father, Prince Christian of Schleswig-Holstein Glücksburg, heir presumptive to the Danish throne. On the 5th of March they reached Antwerp and embarked on the *Victoria and Albert* yacht, accompanied by a squadron of battleships. On the 7th the Prince of Wales met his bride at Gravesend. Their progress through London was one long ovation. All England seemed to have gathered at the Capital to welcome the "Sea King's daughter from over the sea."

On the 10th of March the wedding took place in St. George's Chapel, Windsor. The Queen was present, in the Royal closet, but took no part in the ceremony.

The Princess wore white satin, with Honiton lace and orange blossoms. Her jewelry

third bracelet, of diamonds, was the gift of the ladies of Leeds.

The Prince of Wales wore a General's uniform, with the mantle of the Garter, and the gold collar and jewel of that Order; and the decorations of the Golden Fleece and of the Star of India.

The Bishop of Oxford, in a letter to a friend, writes: "The ceremony was certainly the most moving sight I ever saw. The Queen, above all, looking down, added a wonderful chord of deep feeling to all the lighter notes of joyfulness and show.



THE PRINCESS ALICE.

was magnificent. Her necklace, earrings, and brooch of pearls and diamonds were the bridegroom's gift. Her riviére of diamonds, the gift of the City of London, was worth £10,000. She wore three bracelets. Two were of opals and diamonds; one, the gift of the Queen, the other, the gift of the ladies of Manchester. The

Every one behaved quite at their best. The Princess of Wales, calm, feeling self-possessed. The Prince with more depth of manner than ever before. Princess Mary's entrance was grand. The little Prince William of Prussia, between his two little uncles to keep him quiet, both of whom—the Crown Princess told me—he hit on the bare Highland legs whenever they touched him to keep him quiet." That little Prince William is the present Emperor of Germany. His uncles have not yet learned how to keep him quiet.

After the wedding-breakfast the Prince and Princess of Wales left for Osborne, where the honeymoon was spent.

Early in the following year the nation rejoiced over the birth of Prince Albert Victor of Wales. As the years went by five other children were born to them.

The Princess of Wales has proved an excellent mother. She has taught her children that courtesy is the distinctive mark of princes. She has constantly trained them to remember their duties rather than their privileges. As a result, no more unassuming young people can be found in England to-day than the children of the heir to the British Crown.

To the Princess of Wales has been granted, in addition to her many charming qualities, that last perfection of woman—a vein of humor. In illustration the following story may be here set down. At a ball at the Mansion House, among the guests introduced to the Princess was the mayor of a provincial town. Ignorant of the rules of etiquette with regard to Royal Highnesses, our mayor invited the Princess to dance. In answer she said: "I do not know whether you will not be rather afraid. Some of my children are just recovering from the measles, and you might take them." His worship gallantly replied: "I should be delighted to take anything from so charming a source."

Sandringham, the Prince of Wales' country house, is not very large, nor very magnificent, but is a real English home. Over the hall door is a tablet with the inscription: "This house was built by Albert Edward, Prince of Wales, and Alexandra, his wife, in the year of our Lord 1870."

Here their children have grown up around them. Here they have shared much happiness, and some great sorrows. Here they have done much good.

And not here only. Many cruel things have been said and written against the Prince. They are hearsay stories, or newspaper paragraphs based on no foundation. The Prince is an honorable, true-hearted gentleman, honest of purpose, loyal to his friends, temperate in everything except his hate of the mean and vulgar wherever found.

In society he has been a power for good. Since, in 1863, he began his social reign there has been a marked improvement in the tone of English society. Heavy drinking after dinner has become outlawed. Profane and coarse language has never met with toleration in his presence: always the mark of a low



H.R.H. THE PRINCESS OF WALES.

mind, it has been voted "low." Few men have done so much to make efforts to comfort and uplift the suffering and the poor, the recognized duties of the leisured and of the wealthy. His example has taught noblemen to be noble. In all philan-

thropic and charitable efforts he has led the way. By his patronage and by his skilful personal direction of national and international exhibitions he has contributed materially to the development of the industrial arts, and to the consequent expansion of trade.

His has been a life of benevolence and usefulness, the benefits of which can not easily be set down in a Blue Book, or any other colored book.

As a friend he is loyalty itself. His one great fault, and it is a rare fault, has been that he has refused to see in his friends anything but the good side. He has adhered to them even when they have proved themselves unworthy of consideration.

To see him at home amid a merry group of children, to watch his hearty enjoyment of their society and their boisterous delight in his, is sufficient to banish from one's mind and memory the calumnies which depict him as a selfish voluptuary.

His high personal character, tact and good-feeling have given him such ascendancy in the minds of Englishmen, that, as a distinguished American has said, if England were made a Republic to-morrow, the Prince of Wales would be elected President. Another American, Mr. Smalley, in his "London Letters," says: "If the art of saying the right thing to the right person at the right moment be good conversation—and it might be hard to define it better—the Prince of Wales must be put high upon the list. He would be surprised to find himself there, for nobody makes less pretence to inspiration, or learning, or many other things which sometimes enhance the attractiveness of good talk yet are not of its essence. He has knowledge of a very useful kind, for he knows more than any one else of the matters in which society is most interested, and he has that sixth sense which tells a man what to avoid, and his full share, also, of that kindly common sense and shrewd perception which must be the basis of the best social intercourse."

Throughout their thirty-four years of married life the Prince and Princess have maintained the most intimate and affectionate relations with each other—relations which the Princess is too high-spirited to have endured were the slanders whispered against the Prince in the least degree true.

For many years the health of their eldest son, Prince Albert Victor, was a source of anxiety to his parents. A long cruise with his brother George in the *Bacchante* seemed to have given strength and tone to his constitution. It

did not, however remove that diffidence which characterized him everywhere except in the society of his mother. His death was a great blow to the Prince and Princess. On the 5th of December, 1891, his engagement to the Princess Victoria Mary of Teck had been announced. On the 10th of January, 1892, he was attacked with influenza and pneumonia, and four days later he died. The Prince and Princess of Wales, in a telegram, expressed their deep gratitude for the universal sympathy extended to them in their hour of sorrow, and the Queen caused the following letter to be published :

"OSBORNE, January 26th, 1892.

"I must once again give expression to my deep sense of the loyalty and affectionate sympathy evinced by my subjects in every part of my empire on an occasion more sad and tragical than any but one which has befallen me and mine as well as the nation. The overwhelming misfortune of my dearly loved grandson having been thus suddenly cut off in the flower of his age, full of promise for the future, amiable and gentle, and endearing himself to all, renders it hard for his sorely stricken parents, his dear young bride, and his fond grandmother to bow in submission to the inscrutable decrees of Providence.

"The sympathy of millions, which has been so touchingly and visibly expressed is deeply gratifying at such a time, and I wish, both in my own name, and that of my children, to express from my heart my words of gratitude to all.

"These testimonies of sympathy with us, and appreciation of my dear grandson, whom I loved as a son, and whose devotion to me was as great as that of a son, will be a help and consolation to me and mine in our affliction.

"My bereavements during the last thirty years of my reign have indeed been heavy. Though the labors, anxieties, and responsibilities inseparable from my position have been great, yet it is my earnest prayer that God may continue to give me health and strength to work for the good and happiness of my dear country and Empire while life lasts.

"VICTORIA R. and I."

On the death of his elder brother, Prince George, Duke of York, became heir-presumptive to the British Crown. He bears a remarkable likeness to his cousin, the present Emperor of Russia.

The two brothers had been united in the closest ties of fraternal love. From childhood to early manhood they had been inseparable companions. Each ful-

filled defect in each. The elder regarded with unenvying admiration the robust vigor and vivacity of the younger. That younger found in the staid and steadier character of his elder brother the balance to his own impulsive disposition.

Since the change in his fortunes, the young Duke of York has been compelled to leave the navy and take up the duties of his new position.

His marriage, on the 6th of July, 1893, to the Princess Victoria Mary of Teck, with the birth in the following year of a son, has removed all risk of failure in the direct line of succession to the Crown.

The Princess Louise of Wales, eldest daughter of the Prince of Wales, was married on the 27th of July, 1889, to the Duke of Fife. Carefully trained by her mother, she is distinguished by the naturalness of her demeanor and by a total absence of affectation.

The Duke of Fife, a great grandson of William IV., is one of the most popular men in the three kingdoms. From childhood he has been a neighbor of the Royal Princes and Princesses, Mar Lodge, his father's and his own favorite country house, being close to Balmoral. In ability above the average of young nobles, he enjoys the singular distinction of possessing no accomplishments. He has never sought to rival the poet, the painter, the musician, the pugilist, or the jockey. Now that he has retired from politics, he devotes his energies to the management of his large estates.

Their union has been crowned by the birth of two children, Alexandra, born 17th May, 1891, and Maud Alexandra, born 3rd April, 1893.

The Princess Maud of Wales was married in 1896 to Prince Charles of Denmark.

In July, 1873, Prince Alfred, Duke of Edinburgh, became engaged to the Grand-Duchess Marie, only daughter of the Czar, Alexander II. On Jan. 23rd, 1874, they were married according to the rites of the Russian and Anglican Churches. The marriage was, on both sides, a marriage of affection. The Duchess of Edinburgh has constantly used in the interests of European peace the great influence which her relationship gives her.

Their eldest daughter, the Princess Marie of Edinburgh, was married in 1893 to Prince Ferdinand, Crown Prince of Roumania, that Belgium of eastern Europe.

The Duke of Edinburgh, in whose favor the Prince of Wales resigned his

rights, April 19th, 1863, is now reigning Duke of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha, in succession to Ernst, brother of the late Prince Consort. As a foreign Sovereign, the Duke has ceased to be a Privy Councillor. His position as a peer of the realm is somewhat undecided. On becoming Duke of Saxe-Cobourg his Royal Highness voluntarily resigned his claim to the £15,000 per annum which had been granted him in 1866 by the British Parliament.

Prince Alfred was trained from early years for the navy. In 1861 he re-



H.R.H., ALFRED, DUKE OF EDINBURGH.

turned from a cruise to the West Indies. In October of the same year he visited Halifax. He was on his way to join the combined expedition from the Governments of Spain, France, and Great Britain. The Commissioners from these powers were accompanied by a body of Spanish troops, a smaller force of French troops, and some British sailors. The ostensible object of the expedition was to demand from President Juarez guarantees for the safety of the subjects of the Powers, and insist on payment of money borrowed by Mexico. Juarez readily acknow-

ledged the demands of the Commissioners. The Spanish and British forces were at once withdrawn. The French remained to carry out the policy which ended so disastrously for the unfortunate Archduke Maximilian.

His Royal Highness Prince Alfred was accorded a grand reception in London in July, 1868, to celebrate his safe return from his voyage to the Australian Colonies. The Crystal Palace Company arranged a grand festival on the 4th inst. The entertainments consisted of a grand opera concert, the exhibition of



H.R.H. THE DUCHESS OF EDINBURGH.

the great fountains, and a magnificent display of fireworks. At the display of fireworks in the evening the Prince and Princess of Wales were also present. The pyrotechnic display began with the ceremony of saluting their Royal Highnesses with colored signal lights. Next came the exhibition of an illuminated model of H.M.S. *Galatea*, the frigate commanded by the Duke of Edinburgh on his late voyage. The length of the model was 80 feet, and the height of her top-mast

upwards of 40 feet. She carried full sail. As she stood in the "stocks," with her portholes open and the British ensign flying at the foretop, the red and blue fire issuing from various parts of the ship, and the deep green of the waves on which she appeared to ride, a splendid effect was produced. Rockets were flying and bursting in all directions, so that the sound was somewhat like that of a battle or cannonade at sea. Conspicuous above all—next to the model of the *Galatea*—were two set pieces, the one inclosing an anchor with the words "Welcome, Alfred!" the other representing the Prince of Wales feathers, with



MARRIAGE OF THE PRINCESS HELENE.

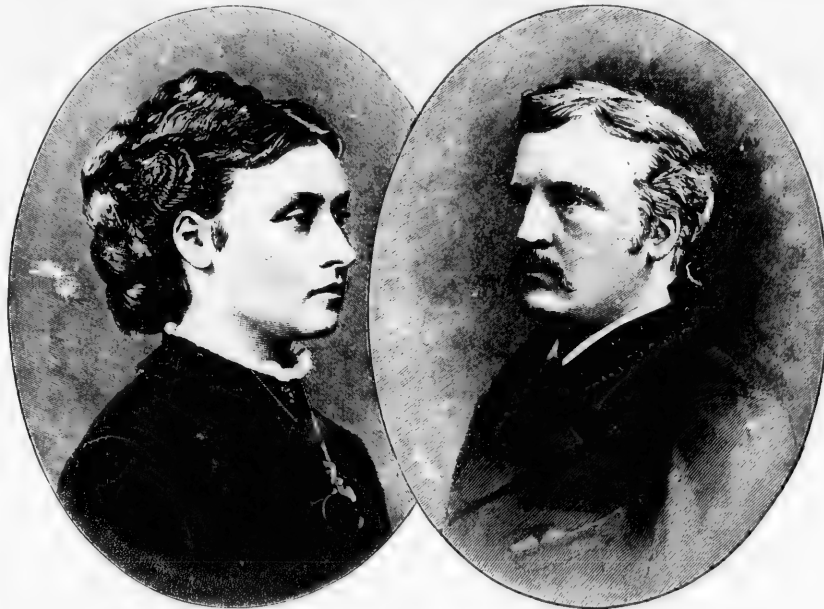
the single word "Welcome!" Over thirty thousand spectators viewed the grand display.

The Princess Helene, the Queen's fifth child, married in July, 1886, Prince Christian of Schleswig-Holstein. With her husband and five children, she resides near Windsor. Hers has been a calm life, unostentatiously given to good works.

The Princess Louise, her Majesty's sixth child, born March 18, 1848, was married on the 21st March, 1871, to the Marquis of Lorne. On his appointment, in 1878 as Governor-General of Canada, she accompanied him to this country.

The departure from England of the newly-appointed Governor-General and the Marchioness, her Royal Highness Princess Louise, was the occasion of a public farewell ceremonial at Liverpool on Thursday, November 14th. The illustrious couple were accompanied in their special train to Liverpool by the Duke of Connaught and Prince Leopold. At Liverpool the party were met by the Mayor of Liverpool and a large company of distinguished citizens. An address of welcome on behalf of the Corporation of Liverpool was read. The Marquis replied to the Address in the customary terms. Having thanked the Mayor personally on behalf of himself and the Princess, the Marquis went on to say: "I assure you that we shall not forget the attention we have received, or the great demonstration made by the people of Liverpool of the interest they feel in the good of Canada, and the love borne by the old country for her children across the Atlantic. You who dwell at this great port, and see so many leave their native land for distant climes, will understand me when I say that we do not lightly leave you. The heart is often sad at leaving home when the ship is about to start and the anchor is weighed, however hearty the farewell greetings of the friends on shore. It is, however, the duty of those who go to look forward and not back; and it is pleasant to think that across the water we shall find ourselves among our own countrymen, having the same institutions as those we know here, and that under the same flag we shall find the same laws and the same determination to uphold and abide them; the same love of liberty as here, and the same ability to guard it in honor and order; the same loyalty to the throne for the same cause—because it is the creation of freemen, the bond of strength, and the symbol of unity and dignity of the people. Where in the British North American provinces we do not find men of our own stock, we are fortunate in finding those who descend from the noble French race—that race whose gallantry we have for ages learned to respect and admire, the friendship of whose sons, and their co-operation in the public life of Canada, which is adorned by their presence, is justly held to be essential to the welfare of our country; for nowhere is loyalty more true and firmly rooted than among the French-Canadians—enjoying as we all do the freedom of equal laws and justice of constitutional rule. In conclusion, I must say that nothing has struck me more than the enthusiastic feeling mani-

fested towards Canada among all classes of the community here. In England and Scotland wherever I have of late had an opportunity of hearing any expression of the public mind, crowds at any public gathering have always given cheers for Canada. This great gathering of to-day is a remarkable symptom of the same favorable augury; for a good augury I hold it to be that wherever there is an opportunity men in the old country are ready to call, 'Hurrah for Canada!' On the other side of the ocean they are as ready to call, 'Hurrah for the Old



THE PRINCESS LOUISE.

THE MARQUIS OF LORNE.

Country' and these cries are no mere words of the lips, but come from the heart of great peoples. So long as the feelings which prompt these sayings endure, we may look forward with confidence to the future, and know that those bonds of affection which have been knitted by God through the means of kinship and justice will not be sundered by disaster, or weakened by time."

The Parliamentary Address on the departure from Canada of the Governor-General and the Princess gave expression to the feelings of the whole Dominion:

"The presence of your illustrious consort in Canada seems to have drawn us closer to our beloved Sovereign; and in saying farewell to your Excellency and her Royal Highness, whose kindly and gracious sympathies manifested upon so many occasions have endeared her to all hearts, we humbly beg that you will personally convey to her Majesty the declaration of our loyal attachment, and of our determination to maintain firm and abiding our connection with the great Empire over which she rules."

Prince Arthur, Duke of Connaught, her Majesty's seventh child, was born May 1, 1850. In 1869 he visited Canada. Halifax was reached in August. Here the Prince reviewed the troops in garrison, afterwards attending a picnic in the grounds of the house formerly occupied by his grandfather, the Duke of Kent. He arrived at Quebec on the 15th of September, in the steamer *Napoleon II.*, accompanied by Colonel Elphinstone, Lieutenant Picard, and Mr. Gregory. As he stepped ashore, the Lieutenant-Governor, Sir Narcisse Belleau, with Major Taschereau, aide-de-camp in waiting bade him welcome to Lower Canada, speaking in the French language. The military commander of Quebec, General Stisted, and the members of the Privy Council, were then presented to his Royal Highness. The Mayor of the city, Mr. Lemesurier, read an address of congratulation from the Town Council.

From Quebec, the Prince and his party went to Upper Canada. Here hunting and shooting were indulged in. The native Indian settlement was visited. The chiefs of the Six Nations appeared in all the glory of their war-paint. The Prince was made a chief of the tribe with due ceremonies.

In 1874 Prince Arthur was created Duke of Connaught, being the first Royal Prince whose leading title is Irish.

On the 13th of March, 1879, he married the Princess Louise Margaret, daughter of Prince Frederick Charles of Prussia, the "Red Prince" of the Franco-Prussian War.

The Duke of Connaught is a distinguished soldier. In 1882 he went to Egypt in command of the First Brigade of Guards. At the battle of Tel-el-Kebir he behaved admirably, leading his Brigade to the attack. The correspondent of the *Daily Telegraph* writes: "The Brigade of Grenadier Guards, under the command of the Duke of Connaught, were stationed in the second line of the British army during the attack on Tel-el-Kebir, as supports to General Willis's infantry brigade. Though not nominally in the post of danger, as the assault was, of course,

begun by the first rank, the Guards suffered far more in proportion from the enemy's fire, owing to the Egyptians, who had some vague inkling of an approaching attack, having sighted their guns for 2,000 yards, never dreaming that the British troops could advance closer to their lines unperceived. The first line, however, had advanced to within 1,200 yards before they were discovered, and consequently the shots flew over their heads and into the ranks of their supports behind." "As they" (the Guards) "lay 1,000 yards behind, itching to be in with their bayonets, shell and shot fell rapidly into their ranks, and it was a



THE DUCHESS OF CONNAUGHT.

THE DUKE OF CONNAUGHT.

cruel time, for no blows could be struck in return. Several times when the storming line seemed wavering, the Guards were on the point of rushing into the *mêlée*, and the gallant young Duke of Connaught, who sat imperturbed upon his horse amidst the rain of bullets, must surely have been much exercised to restrain the sturdy brigade from joining in the hand-to-hand fray. *En revanche*, let a word of sincere tribute be paid to the Royal Prince, whose example has been excellent, and his bearing what it was sure to be, from first to last, in this campaign."

On Wednesday, Sept. 13th, the Queen wrote in her Diary: "Had a telegram that the army marched out last night. What an anxious moment! We walked afterwards as far as the arch for Leopold's reception, which was a very pretty one, and placed as nearly where it had been on previous occasions, only rather nearer Middleton's lodge, and thence back to the cottage, where I sat and wrote and signed, etc.

"Another telegram, also from Reuter, saying that fighting was going on, and that the enemy had been routed with heavy loss at *Tel-el-Kebir*. Much agitated.

"On coming in got a telegram from Sir John McNeill, saying, 'A great victory; Duke safe and well.' Sent all to Louischen.* The excitement very great. Felt unbounded joy and gratitude for God's great goodness and mercy.

"The same news came from Lord Granville and Mr. Childers, though not yet from Sir Garnet Wolseley. A little later, just before two, came the following most welcome and gratifying telegram from Sir Garnet Wolseley:

" *Ismailia, September 13, 1882.*

" *Tel-el-Kebir—From Wolseley to the Queen, Balmoral.*

"Attacked Arabi's position at five this morning. His strongly intrenched position was most bravely and gallantly stormed by the Guards and line, while cavalry and horse artillery worked round their left flank. At seven o'clock I was in complete possession of his whole camp. Many railway trucks, with quantities of supplies, fallen into our hands. Enemy completely routed, and his loss has been very heavy; also regret to say we have suffered severely. Duke of Connaught is well, and behaved admirably, leading his brigade to the attack.'

"Brown brought the telegram, and followed me to Beatrice's room, where Louischen was, and I showed it to her. I was myself quite upset, and embraced her warmly, saying what joy and pride and cause of thankfulness it was to know our darling safe, and so much praised! I feel quite beside myself for joy and gratitude, though grieved to think of our losses, which, however, have not proved to be so serious as at first reported. We were both much overcome."

For his services the Duke received the thanks of Parliament, and was decorated by her Majesty with the medal for Egypt.

From 1886 to 1890 the Duke was Commander-in-Chief in Bombay. On his way home he passed through Canada, receiving everywhere a loyal and enthusiastic welcome.

* The Duchess of Connaught.

Prince Leopold, Duke of Albany, the Queen's eighth child, and youngest son, was born on the 7th of April, 1853. More than any of his brothers he resembled his father, both in person and in mind.

From his childhood he had been delicate. When the Prince Consort died the young Prince was at Cannes, whither he had been sent for the benefit of his health. While a student at Oxford his constitution was greatly weakened by an attack of typhoid fever followed by hemorrhage of the lungs. In 1874, on his coming



THE DUCHESS OF ALBANY.

THE DUKE OF ALBANY.

of age, he was voted £15,000 a year by Parliament. In 1881 he was created Duke of Albany. In 1880 he visited Canada, but owing to the condition of his health he was unable to show himself in public. On the 27th April, 1882, he married Princess Helene, daughter of the Prince of Waldeck Pyrmont. Parliament voted £10,000 additional income.

Of their welcome to Balmoral the Queen writes :

"The pipes preceded, playing the 'Highland Laddie,' Brown and all our

other kilted men walking alongside, and before and behind the carriage, everybody else close following; and a goodly number they were. We got out at the door and went just beyond the arch, all our people standing in a line, headed by our Highlanders. . . . Dr. Profeit gave Leopold and Helen's health, and after these had been drunk, Brown stepped forward and said nearly as follows: 'Ladies and Gentlemen,—Let us join in a good Highland cheer for the Duke and Duchess of Albany; may they live long and die happy!' which pleased every one, and there were hearty cheers."

The good wishes were not destined to be realized. Two years later the Duke died suddenly at Cannes of a hemorrhage, brought on by over-exertion.

The Duke of Albany was a prince of remarkable qualities. He inherited the literary tastes of his father, and might have filled a still more illustrious place. He had latterly manifested oratorical powers of no mean order. Several of his public speeches are possessed of great merit. The following extract from a sermon preached by his former governor, the Rev. Canon Duckworth, helps us to realize how great a loss the Queen and the Empire sustained in the death of the Duke of Albany. His latest thoughts were occupied with the condition of the poor in our great cities, and it was his heart's desire to help forward some hopeful scheme for mitigating the discomfort and unhealthiness of their homes:

"It was true of the Prince that he recognised profoundly the uncertainty of this life and the constant nearness of the life beyond. Wide as was the circle of his interests, and great as were his powers of enjoying whatever God gave him taste and strength to enjoy, he knew how frail was his tenure of all that this world had to offer, and he did not shrink from expression of this conviction to intimate friends. Even the overflowing happiness which his marriage brought him did not abate it. It was but the other day, in the midst of busy and successful work in a northern city, that he wrote thus to one of whom he knew that his removal would be the greatest of sorrows: 'Should anything happen to me, do not mourn for the dead, but live for the living!' Noble words, in the strength of which many a heart bereaved by his departure may well rise up and betake itself with renewed faith and hope to duty!"

In response to the universal sympathy, the Queen wrote an affecting letter to her people.

The Duchess of Albany is one of the most popular and unassuming of the



PRINCE HENRY OF BATTENBERG.

members of the British Royal family. She has devoted herself to the bringing up of her two children. The Duchess is the sister of the Queen Regent of Holland, a widow like herself.

The Princess Beatrice, her Majesty's ninth and youngest child, has willingly devoted her life and her talents to the task of alleviating the burdens and cheering the loneliness of the widowed Queen. In July, 1885, she married, but under conditions which allowed her still to continue her loving ministrations.

Her husband, Prince Henry of Battenberg, was the third son of Prince Alexander of Hesse, uncle of the husband of Princess Alice. Prince Louis of Battenberg, elder brother of Prince Henry, is an officer in the Royal Navy. Another brother, Prince Alexander, was for a time Prince of Bulgaria.



PRINCESS BEATRICE.

Prince Henry had been attached to the "Gards du Corps" regiment of the Prussian Household Cavalry, and was married in its exceedingly becoming uniform.

The Prince and Princess of Wales, the father and mother of Prince Henry, and his brothers were all present at the wedding, which

took place at Whittingham Church, the Archbishop of Canterbury officiating.

In 1895 Prince Henry joined the expedition against the Ashantis. Unhappily he was seized with jungle fever, and though sent on board ship succumbed to the deadly infection. The Queen wrote:

"OSBORNE, February 14th, 1896,

"I have alas! once more to thank my loyal subjects for their warm sympathy in a fresh grievous affliction which has befallen me and my beloved daughter, Princess Beatrice, Prince Henry of Battenberg.

"This new sorrow is overwhelming, and to me is a double one, for I lose a

dearly-beloved and helpful son, whose presence was like a bright sunbeam in my home, and my dear daughter loses a noble, a devoted husband, to whom she was united by the closest affection.

"To witness the blighted happiness of the daughter who has never left me, and has comforted and helped me, is hard to bear. But the feeling of universal sympathy so touchingly shown by all classes of my subjects has deeply moved my child and myself, and has helped and soothed us greatly. I wish from my heart to thank my people for this, as well as for the appreciation manifested for the dear and gallant Prince, who laid down his life in the service of his adopted country.

"My beloved child is an example to all in her courage, resignation, and submission to the will of God.

"VICTORIA, R. and I."

A few lines may be added about the Royal grandchildren. Her Majesty has had nine children, of whom, in 1897, seven are living.

Her first grandchild was William, the present Emperor of Germany, son of the Crown Prince of Prussia and Princess Royal of England.

Her first great-grandchild was Feodore, daughter of Charlotte, daughter of the Princess Royal and of Prince Bernard of Saxe-Meiningen.

The Princess Royal, now the Dowager Empress Frederick, has six living children.

The Prince of Wales has four living children.

The Princess Alice had seven children.

The Duke of Edinburgh has five children.

The Princess Christian has five children.

The Princess Louise is childless.

The Duke of Connaught has three children.

The Duke of Albany left two children.

The Princess Beatrice has four children.

How great her Majesty's influence in the Councils of Europe must be may readily be inferred from the following facts:

The Emperor of Germany is her grandson.

The Empress of Russia is her granddaughter.

The Crown Princesses of Greece and of Roumania are her granddaughters.

The Grand Duke of Hesse-Darmstadt is her grandson.

The Duke of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha is her son.

The Princess of Saxe-Meiningen is her granddaughter.

It augurs well for the future of these Imperial, Royal, Grand-Ducal and Ducal houses that the training in them of the rising generation is in the hands of Princesses who have had set before them the high ideals of life and conduct exhibited by her gracious Majesty and her noble husband, "ALBERT THE GOOD."



KING'S LODGE, HALIFAX.

Formerly occupied by the Duke of Kent, the Queen's father.

CHAPTER XIV.

The Jubilee of 1887.

The Jubilee Celebration—Unparalleled Enthusiasm—The Procession in London—Colonial Addresses
—Celebrations throughout the Empire.

THE affectionate regard of the British people for their Sovereign has been one of the phenomena of this wonderful nineteenth century. The enthusiasm with which she was greeted on her accession in the opening dawn of her youth and beauty was not difficult to understand. But that the love and reverence which she then enjoyed should have survived so many years of something like retirement from the active headship of society is remarkable. Almost any other Capital would have resented what has been, in appearance at least, a slight. Nor has the prolonged absence



TOWER OF LONDON.

of her Majesty from London been without some practical inconveniences; the most serious, perhaps, being the loss of the power which she might have wielded with great advantage over the discipline of society. If her Majesty could have maintained the position which she held during the lifetime of the Prince Consort, by simply banishing from her presence all whose conduct was offensive to sound morals, she might have done much to prevent a certain laxity of tone.

Nevertheless, the very circumstances which might have been expected to call forth murmurs have tended rather to deepen the good will of her people. Never was there a more romantic exhibition of conjugal devotion than she has held up to the world. Whatever may be in store for our race hereafter, it is beyond question that nothing is so dear to the British heart as the associations conjured up by the word "Home." Her Majesty has always been regarded as a pattern of domestic charities. There is something which appeals to the imagination of her people in the idea of the mightiest and most magnificent Potentate on earth voluntarily relinquishing the splendors of her Court for the sake of such pleasures and pursuits as are depicted in the Journals of her Highland life.

It was, therefore, with a burst of enthusiasm, unparalleled in the history of the world, that her people received the announcement of her Majesty's intention to celebrate with fitting grandeur and with due publicity the completion of the fiftieth year of her glorious reign.

Perhaps the most useful, enduring and inspiring memorial of her long reign was that which was first taken in hand—the Imperial Institute, of which we have already spoken.

The celebration of the Queen's Jubilee began in India. There on the 16th of February it was observed with magnificence. Imperial honors were distributed. Arrears of taxes were remitted. Twenty-five thousand prisoners were released. Libraries, colleges, schools, waterworks, hospitals, were opened in honor of her Majesty.

In the month of March congratulatory addresses began to pour in.

On the 23rd of March the Queen visited Birmingham, once the hotbed of Republicanism, to lay the foundation-stone of the new Law Courts, receiving from all classes a welcome that was one prolonged popular demonstration of loyalty and affection.

On the 4th of May her Majesty received at Windsor addresses from the representatives of the Colonial Governments, congratulating her on having witnessed

the increase of her Colonial subjects from less than two millions to more than nine millions; of her Indian subjects from 96 millions to 254 millions; of her subjects in minor dependencies from two millions to seven millions.

On the 14th of May the Queen opened the People's Palace at Whitechapel. There, if anywhere in England, is the home of socialism and of anarchy. If any existed, it was dumb that day—dumb, or smothered beneath the roar of acclaim that accompanied and followed her Majesty's progress.

The People's Palace owes its erection to a bequest of Mr. John Thomas Barber Beaumont, artist and financier, who died in 1840. Mr. Beaumont left £12,500 to establish an institution for the moral and intellectual improvement of the working classes of East London. By 1886 the fund amounted to £75,000. It was then decided to erect the People's Palace, to include a public library and reading-rooms, technical schools, summer and winter gardens, a concert hall, swimming baths and a gymnasium. A week after the formal opening of the Queen's Hall by her Majesty, the Drapers' Company entertained twenty thousand boys and girls in the Palace, in honor of the Queen's Jubilee.

On the 21st of June the Jubilee was celebrated. At daylight London was astir, and out on the streets in the warm sunshine. The buildings along the route of the procession were a spectacle; every house arrayed in cloth of many colors; some rich with velvet, with tapestries, with Oriental fabrics, with pendant wreaths of flowers, or with flags of all nations. Triumphal arches here and there spanned the streets. Loyal mottoes and salutations met the view on every side. Fanciful structures rose in the broad spaces, gleaming with color.

The Queen's Procession from Buckingham Palace was divided into three sections, with a quarter of an hour's interval between them.

The first consisted of the carriages conveying the Indian Princes, the Queen of Hawaii, and a party of German Princes.

The second consisted of fifteen carriages containing the Royal visitors. Among them were the King of Denmark, the King of the Belgians, the King of Saxony, the King of the Hellenes, the Crown Prince of Austria, the Crown Prince of Portugal, the Queen of the Belgians, the Crown Prince of Greece, Prince George of Greece, the Crown Princess of Austria, and the Grand Duke of Mecklenburg-Strelitz, with the Court officials of each of the Royal personages.

The third, the Queen's Procession proper, consisted of eleven carriages conveying the ladies of the Royal Family. The gentlemen of the Royal Family imme-

diately preceded the Queen's carriages, mounted and in uniform, forming a guard of honor of Royal Princes, followed by a brilliant staff of aides-de-camp and officers of the Household.

The escort consisted of Life Guards, and a detachment of native Indian cavalry.

The order of the Procession was as follows :

Advanced Escort. Life Guards
Aides-de-camp.
Equerries, three abreast.
Head Quarters Staff of the Army.
Carriages with Suites.
Life Guards Escort.
Carriages with Royal Family.
Princes riding in threes.
THE QUEEN.
The Duke of Cambridge.
Life Guards : Field Officers' Escort.
Two Equerries.
Field Officer of Brigade.
Silver Stick.
Party of Life Guards.
Detachment of native Indian Cavalry.
Life Guards . Rear Guard.

The Women of the Bedchamber, the Maids of Honor, the Comptroller of the Household, the Treasurer of the Household, the Vice-Chamberlain, and other officers not mentioned above, were in attendance at Westminster Abbey on the Queen's arrival.

The pageant was short. It would have been improved by the addition of a few thousand troops of all arms. Her Majesty, however, will never allow herself more than a Field Officers' escort. But in brilliancy of effect, and in the political and social elements composing it, nothing was left to be desired. It would have been difficult to bring together a procession more calculated to dazzle the eye and to impress the mind of the tens of thousands of spectators who lined the way.



THE GUARD AT WHITEHALL.

The progress of the pageant was dramatic and imposing. The solitary horseman who first came into sight was but the ordinary advanced vedette of the escort; but his managed horse paced with stately grace. Fifty paces after him came the Advance Guard, followed at the same distance by the little troop of Guardsmen, in bright scarlet, and flashing steel, and flowing plumes.

Then came the carriages of the first procession, with the German Princes and the Indian Princes; the latter in outlandish costumes, glistening with jewels, bringing before the mind's eye a present sense of the power of the Empire to which these potent chiefs of other races owe allegiance. Among them were the Thakur Sahib of Goudal, covered from collar to waist with diamonds and cats eyes, the Maharajah and the Maharanee of Kuch Behar, the Rao of Kuch, and the Maharajah Holkar of Indore. In this group were the representatives of the Shah of Persia and of the King of Siam, the Queen of Hawaii, and the Prince and Princess of Teck.

After an interval of a quarter of an hour the escort of the second procession came into view. The carriages conveyed four kings and four Crown Princes of kingdoms of Europe, who had come to do honor to our Empress-Queen.

With the approach of the third procession the interest deepened. First came the escort, then the series of splendid carriages, containing the great officers of the Household, and the great officers of State; the Princesses allied to the Royal Family; the Princes and Princesses of the Royal Family; the sons and daughters, the sons-in-law and daughters-in-law; and the grandsons and granddaughters of the Queen. Immediately in front of the Queen rode the imposing Body Guard of Princes on horseback. Of this group of three sons, five sons-in-law, nine grandsons and grandsons-in-law, the Crown Prince of Germany and the Prince of Wales attracted the greatest share of notice.

Last came the Queen, with the Princess of Wales and the Crown Princess of Germany on the front seat of the same carriage—the centre of that gathering of kings, princes and nobles assembled to do her honor. The Duke of Cambridge rode beside the carriage, in the collar and star of the Garter, bearing a Field-Marshal's bâton. Then followed a group of distinguished officers, aides-de-camp to the Commander-in-Chief. Another detachment of Life Guards closed the procession.

Westminster Abbey, where the Thanksgiving service was to take place, was filled hours before the Queen's arrival. No building could be worse adapted for

spectacular purposes, yet nothing could be better than the way in which the difficulties were overcome.

Special coigns of vantage were assigned to persons eminent in Art, in Science, in Literature; to Representatives of the Empire and of the Foreign Powers. Judges were there in their wigs and robes; sheriffs from the fifty-two counties of England and Wales; Mayors from all the principal cities of the kingdom. Peers were present in their Court dress, or in uniform. Privy Councillors were resplendent in green and gold, Colonials mostly in scarlet, Ambassadors in all



THE DRIVE AND ROTTEN ROW, HYDE PARK, LONDON.

the colors of the rainbow. The Oriental Princes, draped in such embroideries as the western world has seldom seen, glittered with jewels of price.

At noon her Majesty's Royal guests began to enter; the kings of Saxony, of Denmark, of Greece, of Belgium. Soon the head of the Royal Procession showed itself. First came the Canons of Westminster, forming a guard of honor to the Lord Bishop of London, the Lord Archbishop of York, the Dean of Westminster, and the Lord Archbishop of Canterbury. These were arrayed in copes

of purple velvet, or of cloth of gold. After them came the heralds in their quaint tabards. Then followed the long array of great officials. Then the Hereditary Princes, Hereditary Grand Dukes, Imperial Royal and Serene Highnesses, among them being the Crown Princes of Germany, Austria, Portugal and Sweden. Murmurs of admiration greeted the splendid figure of the Crown Prince of Germany, already in the clutch of death.

In rear of these walked abreast three of her Majesty's sons : the Duke of Connaught, the Prince of Wales, and the Duke of Edinburgh. Last, preceded by the Lord Steward and the Lord Chamberlain, walking backwards, came the Queen. Mr. Smalley in his "London Letters" graphically describes the scene :

"Alone of all that glittering procession her Majesty was plainly dressed, in a gown of black and gray in broad stripes, a bonnet that looked like another crown of gray hair, and the blue ribbon of the Garter from left to right across the shoulders. She moved, as ever, with a beautiful stateliness that well expressed her royal authority ; her face gravely radiant, her eyes turned right and left as with her unequalled demeanor, she acknowledged the salutations addressed to her from either side. The Bishops, great Officers, hereditary Dukes and Princes all passed to the right or left of the dais where stood the coronation chair, over which the coronation robes were thrown, and passed on to the sacarium, or entered the dais at the side. The Queen alone kept on, unswerving to right or left, and reached the broad steps left untrodden by all but the Royal feet, which she mounted slowly with some help from the Lord Steward and the Lord Chamberlain, and so arrived near the throne.

"There she stood for one instant before seating herself, and with one sweeping movement of head and body signified her Royal recognition of the homage this wonderful company offered her. That was the most brilliant moment of all—kings, queens, peers of England, commons of England, ambassadors, ministers, princes, princesses and sovereigns, doing honor in person or by deputy to this Sovereign of England. All were standing, all heads were bent, the music was still echoing through the arches and cheers were still faintly heard from the street. It was the meridian hour of her reign, and the spectacle one on the like of which no living soul has looked before. The sunlight streamed in upon the Queen and the people, and the gray walls and dim arches of the Abbey were all glowing with myriad hues, with scarlet and gold, with delicate tints of silks and the more delicate bloom on the wearers' cheeks. Jewels flashed, and swarthy

Oriental faces for once lighted up. When the Queen sank into her gilt chair this multitude remained standing, as if under a spell, till she had twice signed them to be seated.

"The service which followed was a service of thanksgiving, in which prayer and musical praise had each its due part. The picturesque figure of the Archbishop of Canterbury framed itself against the altar. His Grace's head was literally set in a halo of gold, like a mediæval saint, for he happened to stand precisely in front of the large gold dish which rested edgewise on the sacred shelf.



THE CRYSTAL PALACE, LONDON.

The religious resources of the Church of England were all invoked to express in the Queen's behalf her gratitude for the fifty years of her honored, beneficent and admirable reign. The Dean of Westminster had his due share, perhaps the organist and choristers more than their share.

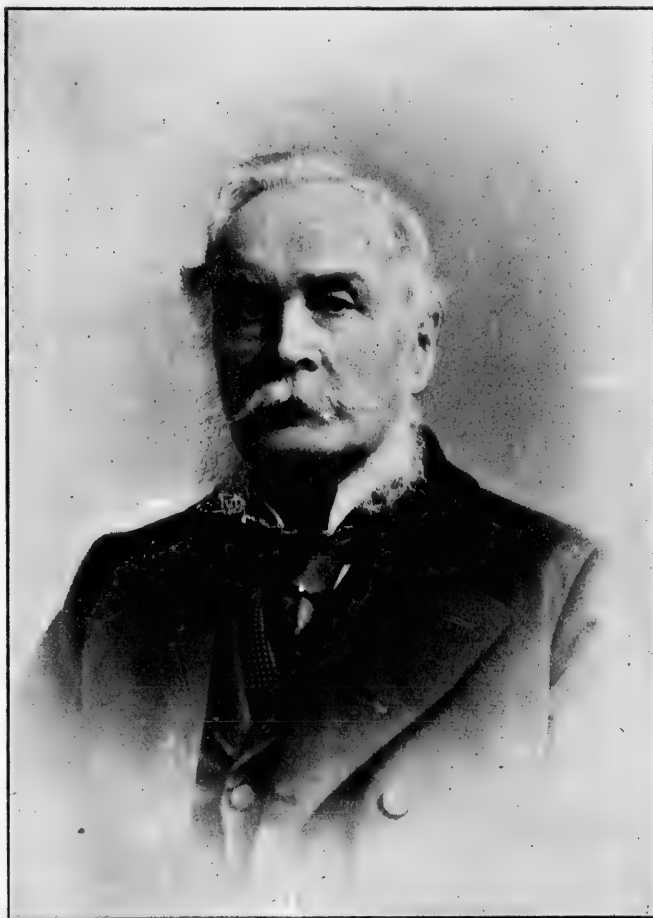
"When the last note had died away there came the most affecting scene of all. The Queen's sons, daughters, and other kin by blood or marriage, who were grouped about her on the dais, came up one by one to her. The Prince of Wales came

first, bowed low, and kissed his mother's hand. She, as he rose, kissed him on both cheeks. Prince after prince performed this affectionate reverence, each receiving the Queen's salute in return, though on one cheek only. The princesses followed, one by one, curtseying to the ground. The Crown Princess of Germany came first, then the Princess of Wales, then Princess Christian and Princess Beatrice, who impulsively kissed her mother's hand a second time as she rose from her lowly obeisance. It was such a glimpse of domestic life and domestic love as the world rarely gets in Royal circles.

"The return of the procession from the Abbey to Buckingham Palace was a thing as remarkable in its way as the ceremony in the Abbey. The cavalry if not numerous was perfection. The long line of headquarters staff was more gorgeous still. The Royal carriages conveying the regal suite seemed to be the most magnificent of equipages till the Queen's own carriage appears. Before the Queen herself came the mounted princes, who formed her Majesty's real escort. Again, as in the Abbey procession, her three sons were next to her. The Prince of Wales rode in the middle, the Duke of Edinburgh on the right, and the Duke of Connaught on the left. And again passes the knightly figure of the German Crown Prince, clothed all in white—a chivalrous apparition. The bronzed face of the Duke of Connaught was kindly greeted by the crowd, but the Prince of Wales received most of the applause.

"But the Queen draws nigh. There is no mistaking those eight cream-colored horses, whose cream color is almost invisible beneath their trappings. Each horse is led, the coach is all gold and blazonry, the harness is heavy with gold, crimson tassels are hanging heavy from the horses' necks, and the footmen behind the carriage are armoured in gold lace. The whole turnout is splendid, beyond compare. The Queen is inside this decorated chariot, the Crown Princess of Germany and the Princess of Wales being on the front seat. Now are heard the thundering cheers of the street. All these people have seen her and cheered her before but they cheer with an unwearied and truly British enthusiasm. The Queen's face is shining with delight. She looks ten years younger and happier than a month since, when the West End and East End together turned out to greet her.

"Cheers follow cheers in volleys and all hats are off. The Queen passes on and away and round the broad curve which takes her to the arch, enveloped and encompassed with this marvellous music of the human voice in multitudin-



SIR CASIMIR S. GZOWSKI, TORONTO, A.D.C. TO THE QUEEN.

ous masses. All gaze after her as she and the Princesses and the gilt coach and cream-colored horses disappear beneath the arch. They reappear again on the other side of it. The whole procession goes flashing by; gleams of gold come through the trees, a touch of scarlet, a tossing mane, a fair face, a mounted prince perhaps; then the rear-guard of those incomparable horsemen, and it is all over. Over but not forgotten, nor to be forgotten by any of the millions who have been happy enough to behold a pageantry admirable in itself, and trebly memorable for its meaning to a people in whom loyalty to a beloved Queen is a living force."

At the Pro-Cathedral, Kensington, by command of the Pope, a grand service of thanksgiving was held. The Papal Envoy-Extraordinary was vested in the Cappa Magna in the street, and took precedence of His Eminence Cardinal Manning at the altar in all save the *Te Deum*. Cardinal Manning said: "I cannot give up that; I am an Englishman, and feel it." The Papal Envoy Monsignor Ruffo-Scilla, was assisted by Monsignor Merry Del Val, the present Apostolic Delegate to Canada.

The Jubilee celebration at the great Synagogue in Aldgate showed that the Jews shared in the emotion of loyalty which was thrilling every heart. The building was decorated with flowers. The service was rendered more effective by the introduction of instrumental music. After a sermon by Dr. Hermann Adler, Chief Rabbi, "God Save the Queen" was sung in Hebrew, and special prayers were offered for her Majesty.

At night the metropolis from end to end was ablaze with illuminations. Edinburgh and Belfast rivalled London in enthusiasm and in the magnificence of their display. Throughout England and Wales beacon fires, begun at Malvern, burned on the summit of every hill.

Next day 27,000 children celebrated the Jubilee in Hyde Park. They were filled with good things and entertained with sports and shows. Each child received a plated medallion portrait of the Queen and a Jubilee mug of Doulton ware. Her Majesty's presence was welcomed with shouts of delight, and with the singing of the National Anthem, and of "God Bless the Prince of Wales."

On the 23rd the Lord Mayor and Corporation went in procession from the Guildhall to a special service of Thanksgiving at St. Paul's Cathedral.

In recognition of her enthusiastic welcome the Queen caused the following letter to be published:



H.R.H. THE DUKE OF YORK

"WINDSOR CASTLE, June 24, 1887.

"I am anxious to express to my people my warm thanks for the kind, and more than kind, reception I met with on going and returning from Westminster Abbey, with all my children and grandchildren.

"The enthusiastic reception I met with then as well as on all those eventful days, in London as well as in Windsor, on the occasion of my Jubilee, has touched me very deeply. It has shown that the labor and anxiety of fifty long years, twenty-two of which I spent in unclouded happiness, shared and cheered by my beloved husband, while an equal number were full of sorrows and trials borne without his sheltering arm and wise help, have been appreciated by my people.

"This feeling, and the sense of duty towards my dear country and subjects, who are so inseparably bound up with my life, will encourage me in my task, often a very difficult and arduous one, during the remainder of my life.

"The wonderful order preserved on this occasion, and the good behavior of the enormous multitudes assembled, merit my highest admiration.

"That God may protect and abundantly bless my country is my fervent prayer.

"VICTORIA, R. and I."

The Queen's garden party at Buckingham Palace on the 29th. was attended by thousands of guests. The Royal tent was guarded by a picked company of Indian troops, each soldier the representative of some native regiment; their uniforms in splendor and picturesqueness surpassing everything European.

On the 2nd of July her Majesty reviewed the Metropolitan Volunteers. On the 4th, in Royal Albert Hall, she laid the foundation-stone of the Imperial Institute.

On the 9th of July, at Aldershot, sixty thousand volunteers passed in review before her. On the 23rd the great Naval Review at Spithead took place. "The might of England" was drawn up in four columns, 135 ships of war, with innumerable vessels of other kinds.

The Jubilee Offering of the women of Great Britain and Ireland amounted to £84,116. It was applied by her Majesty in the following way: £70,000 for the sick poor, and for the benefit of nurses and nursing institutions; £10,000 was set apart for a colossal statue of the Prince Consort, and the remainder for a personal ornament to be worn by the Queen.

A picture of the Emperor William I. and his family, painted by Anton Von



H.R.H. PRINCESS MARY, DUCHESS OF YORK.

Werner, was presented to her Majesty in memory of her Jubilee by the Germans residing in England.

The officers of the British Army as a Jubilee offering presented her Majesty with a silver-gilt centre-piece designed by Alfred Gilbert, R.A., representing the greatness of the Empire.

In Canada congratulatory addresses were prepared and forwarded to her Majesty, drawing attention to the growth and the unity of what at her accession were scattered, sparsely settled provinces; and expressing unswerving loyalty to the throne.

From the Australian Provinces came assurances of the same loyalty and love to her Majesty's throne and person.

New Zealand was not backward in expressions of a similar character.

Victoria, Australia, raised a Queen's Fund as its memorial of her Majesty's Jubilee. Chief Justice Higinbotham explained the object of the fund at a meeting held in the Town Hall, Melbourne, at which the fund was established. "It is not designed to add one more to the list of our, perhaps, already too numerous public charities. It is not designed to establish an institution which would have to appeal year by year for its support to public and private benevolence. It is proposed to create a fund which shall be called the Queen's Fund, in commemoration of the Jubilee of her Majesty's reign. That fund it is proposed to create by collections, which are to be instituted throughout the whole of Victoria, and which are to be obtained chiefly, it is hoped, by the voluntary agency and co-operation of the women of Victoria. Of course, subscriptions and donations will be thankfully received from men also. Indeed, we must expect that it will be from men and not from women that the subscriptions and donations will come in, but Lady Loch looks to women as the principal agents for obtaining subscriptions and donations from men. When this fund shall be collected, and I hope and expect that it will amount to very large proportions, it will be invested. The income of the fund, and the income only, will be devoted to the purposes of the fund. That income will be managed also chiefly—I wish I could say exclusively—by the women of Victoria, women who may be assisted by the advice and experience of men, but who will be invited to give a fair, discriminating intelligence and sympathetic care and attention in the selection of objects for relief. It is proposed that the assistance of women in all parts of Victoria shall be enlisted in the work of distribution as well as in the work of

collection, and either by means of the existing ladies' benevolent societies, or by other and further effective associations in the county districts, that the faithful and effective management of this fund will be secured so as to represent the intelligence and sympathy of women in all parts of the colony. Lastly, and chiefly, this fund it is proposed shall be devoted solely and exclusively to the aid and assistance of women who need its aid. We desire to celebrate a memorable event in a woman's reign. It is Lady Loch's belief that that can be most fitly done, and the wishes of our Queen may be most fitly carried out, by instituting a fund



PRINCE CHRISTIAN,
Of Schleswig-Holstein.

PRINCESS HELENE.

which shall be exclusively devoted to the relief of the necessities and wants of her sex. Of course this comprehensive description of the object of the fund will include every kind and form of women's need. It will include not merely or alone cases in which women are deprived of the aid and support of husbands, brothers and sons by accident or otherwise; it will not be confined alone to the assistance of persons who labor with their hands; it will be extended to every class of women; it will be extended to all forms of womanly need. The gentlemen

who have been engaged in preparing and making arrangements for this meeting have made an addition to Lady Loch's scheme. It is proposed that the committee of management of the income arising from this fund shall be presided over in the first instance, and we hope for a long time to come, by the wife of the representative of her Majesty."

Great good has been done to women in distress in the Province of Victoria during the nine years' operation of the Queen's Fund. The revenue is small, but wise management has made the small revenue of great use.

In South Africa the Jubilee celebrations were of the same loyal description as elsewhere. In Cape Town and in Maritzburg statues of the Queen have since been erected in memory of the Jubilee.

Mr. Lewis Morris composed "A Song of Empire," in commemoration of the Jubilee Celebration of 1887. This magnificent poem closes with the following stirring stanzas:

Flash festal fires, high on the joyous air !
 Clash, joy-bells ! joy-guns, roar ! and, jubilant trumpets, blare !
 Let the great noise of our rejoicing rise !
 Gleam, long illumined cities, to the skies
 Round all the earth, in every clime,
 So far your distance half confuses time !
 As in the old Judean history,
 Fling wide the doors and set the prisoners free
 Wherever England is o'er all the world,
 Fly, banner of Royal England, stream unfurled !
 The proudest empire that has been, to-day
 Rejoices, and makes solemn jubilee.
 For England ! England ! we our voices raise !
 Our England ! England ! England ! in our Queen we praise !
 We love not war, but only peace,
 Yet never shall our England's power decrease !
 Whoever guides our helm of State,
 Let all men know it, England shall be great !
 We hold a vaster Empire than has been !
 Nigh half the race of man is subject to our Queen !
 Nigh half the wide, wide earth is ours in fee !
 And where her rule comes, all are free !
 And therefore 'tis, oh Queen, that we,
 Knit fast in bonds of temperate liberty,
 Rejoice to-day, and make our solemn jubilee ! !

From East to West, through all the mighty Empire, ran the thrill of joy and thanksgiving for her who has proved herself not the head merely, but the soul, of the nations, peacefully working out their destiny beneath the shadow of the Royal Standard of Victoria, Empress and Queen.

The grand function of June, 1887, was the latest and most imposing of a



THE FOUR GENERATIONS.

series of pageants almost, if not quite, peculiar to England and English History. Reigning queens are not common. Our first reigning queen was the mother of Henry II., the widow successively of the Emperor Henry V., and of Geoffrey, Count of Anjou. The London citizens were soon disgusted with her tyranny.

A progress from St. Albans to the City seems to have been her first and last public appearance in London.

From her time to that of Elizabeth of York, wife of Henry VII., no English queen sat on the throne in her own right. The jealous Henry was extremely careful that, even in the honor paid to Elizabeth, no whisper of any such right on her part should be breathed.

The next procession of a queen was that of Queen Jane. On the 10th of July, 1553, "Lady Jane was conveyed by water to the Tower of London and there



HIGH STREET, BELFAST.

Showing the Albert Memorial in the Distance.

received as queene." "The people," wrote the Duke of Northumberland, "press to see us; but no one sayeth God speed us."

In September, 1553, Queen Mary passed in procession from the Tower to Westminster to her coronation.

The accession of Elizabeth was the signal for a spontaneous outburst of universal joy, which throws all previous displays of the kind into the shade. The

political significance of the popular enthusiasm is remarked by all historians. Until 1887 probably no such procession, proportionate to population, has been seen in London as that of the new queen from the Tower to Whitehall on the 14th of January, 1559.

The next queen in her own right was Mary II., the wife of William III. The King and Queen visited the city on Lord Mayor's day, and beheld with great satisfaction "the magnificence and curious embellishments of the several pageants."

Queen Anne also visited the City in great state, and attended a thanksgiving service at St. Paul's after one of Marlborough's victories.

From that time to the time of Queen Victoria there was no reigning queen in England. The celebration of 1887 was further remarkable because it was the first which marked the jubilee of a queen. The Empress Matilda, Elizabeth of York, and Lady Jane could hardly be said to have reigned. Queen Mary was less than six years on the throne. Elizabeth, with her forty-four years and five months, more nearly obtained a jubilee. Queen Mary Stuart, like Queen Mary Tudor, did not reign, even nominally, for six years; and Queen Anne only twelve years and a half. The fifty years have, therefore, never before been attained by a queen; and only by Henry II., Edward III., and George III. among our kings. We do not hear of any special rejoicing either in 1266 or in 1376. The jubilee of George III., in 1809, was obscured by the impending affliction which had begun to show itself again, and which seized him finally in the following year. The jubilee of 1887 was the most brilliant of all.



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CHAPTER XV.

Ten Years Later—The First Five Years.

The Fisheries Commission—The Jesuits' Estates Bill—Imperial Federation—Sir John A. Macdonald
—The Canadian Pacific Railway.



DURING the remaining months of the Jubilee year, Ireland, under the impartial rule of Balfour, and owing to the absence of Parnell from public life, was comparatively peaceful.

An amicable Convention was concluded with France with regard to the Suez Canal and the New Hebrides.

British Beloochistan was annexed to her Majesty's Indian Empire, and East Zululand to the Colony of Natal.

Sir Alexander Campbell was appointed High Commissioner to England in succession to Sir Charles Tupper.

The Dominion general elections returned the Conservative Government to power with a majority of 49.

The High Joint Commissioners (Great Britain being represented by Rt.-Hon. Joseph Chamberlain, Sir Lionel West, British Minister at Washington, and Sir Charles Tupper) met in Washington to consider the vexed question of the Fisheries.

During 1888 in the British Parliament the struggle between the advocates of coercion in Ireland and its opponents continued without intermission. The revolutionary tactics of the Irish leaders began to be adopted by agitators in Wales, and by the supporters of the Crofter movement in Scotland. London was made a separate county, with a council similar to the councils of the other counties in England and Wales.

In Germany the year 1888 is known as the year of the Three Emperors. Emperor William I. died; within three months his son, Emperor Frederick, followed him to the grave, and William II. ascended the Imperial Throne.



HER MAJESTY QUEEN VICTORIA (1895).

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In 1883 the Joint Commission on the Fisheries concluded a Treaty, which was signed at Washington 15th of February, passed by the Canadian Parliament 2nd of May, and received the Royal assent 16th of May. The United States Senate, however, refused to ratify the agreement.

In Canada the year 1888 was memorable for the passing of the Jesuits' Estates Bill. The Quebec Cabinet under Premier Mercier secured the passage of a Bill in the Provincial Legislature, granting \$400,000 in full settlement of the Jesuits' Estates claim. At the same time, \$60,000 was given for educational purposes to the Protestants. This Bill did not attract much notice while passing through the House, but it presently provoked a storm of censure, not only in the Province of Quebec but also in Ontario. The preamble reciting the approval of the Pope to the measure was regarded with particular dislike, as trenching on the prerogative of the Queen. A bitter controversy subsequently arose over the disposal of the grant. The Jesuits claimed the whole of the amount; Laval University and other educational institutions demanded a share. In the end the Pope was petitioned to settle the dispute. His holiness divided the amount: the Jesuits received \$160,000; Laval University got \$140,000; \$20,000 went to Labrador missions; \$10,000 to each of the Bishops.

On the 26th March, 1889, the question was brought up in the Dominion House of Commons. William E. O'Brien, the member for Muskoka, moved a long resolution condemnatory of the action of the Legislature of Quebec in passing the Jesuits' Estates claim. His objections to the measure were, that it used the public funds to endow a religious organization, that it recognized the right of the Pope to influence Provincial legislation, and that the endowment of the Jesuit order, an alien, secret, and politico-religious body, which had been driven out of every Roman Catholic nation where it formerly had a footing, a step rendered necessary by its intolerant and mischievous intermeddling with the functions of civil government, was fraught with danger to the civil and religious liberties of the people of Canada. The House was asked to pray His Excellency the Governor-General to disallow the Bill. A long and acrimonious debate ensued. On the 28th March the House decided, by a vote of 118 to 13, that the Legislature of Quebec had not exceeded its authority in passing the "Jesuits' Estates Bill;" and that the Dominion Parliament had no right to interfere.

A renewal of the anti-Jesuit agitation broke out a few months later. Meet-

ings were held at different points to denounce the Jesuits' Estates Bill. The House of Commons was also denounced for not voting for the disallowance of the Bill. A convention of so-called "Equal Righters" assembled in Toronto on the 11th of June, 1889. Nearly seven hundred delegates were present from all parts of the country. Strong condemnatory resolutions were passed. A deputation was appointed to wait upon the Governor-General, to ask him to disallow the Bill. The Governor-General declined to take action in the matter, in view of the large vote in Parliament against disallowance.

In 1889 the British South African Company received its charter, empowering it to settle the immense area lying between Lower and Central Zambesi on the north and the Transvaal border on the south. The Company included Mr. Cecil J. Rhodes, the Dukes of Abercorn and of Fife, Earl Gifford and other eminent persons. No sooner had the Company begun operations than the Portuguese set up a claim to a large portion of the territory covered by their charter. The Marquis of Salisbury protested against the claim of Portugal. He referred to the agreement of Great Britain with Lobengula, ruler of Mashona and Makalaland; to British agreements with other tribes; to the results of British explorations.

Senor de Barros Gomes, Portuguese Minister of Foreign Affairs, replied sustaining the claims of Portugal, based on discoveries and consequent effective occupation.

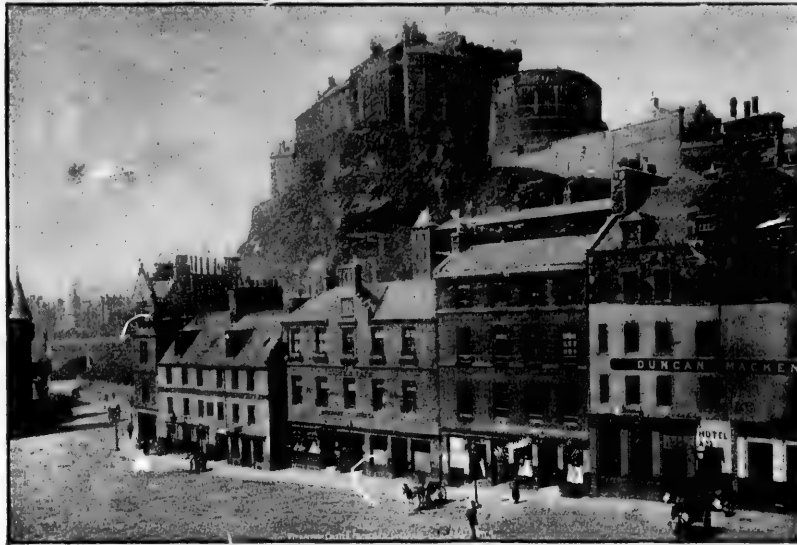
In the meantime Major Serpa Pinto, the Portuguese Munchausen, formed a camp in the Makololo country, quarrelled with the natives, conquered them, and called upon the British settlers to submit to Portugal.

Hearing of these high-handed proceedings from the Anglican Missionary Bishop of Mashonaland, Lord Salisbury telegraphed to the Portuguese Government warning them against intrusion on British settlements. Senor Barros de Gomes in reply, justified the action of Major Pinto. A peremptory note was immediately despatched requiring the immediate withdrawal of Major Serpa Pinto. The Portuguese reply being unsatisfactory, Lord Salisbury telegraphed the British Ambassador at Lisbon to require acceptance of the British demands before 10 p.m. on the 11th of January. If not accepted, he was to order H.M.S. *Enchantress* to enter the Tagus and prepare for the departure of the British Legation from Lisbon.

The Portuguese Council of State decided to yield under protest, and to withdraw from the disputed territory.

During 1889 the beneficent results of British rule in Egypt began to appear. Though taxation had been reduced, a large surplus remained in the treasury. The Forced Labor (*corvée*) of the fellaheen was abolished. Great improvements in irrigation were brought to a conclusion. A plan for the decentralisation of justice and for the creation of local courts was adopted. In these salutary reforms Britain was opposed with relentless jealousy by France.

In May, 1890, an International Industrial Exhibition was opened at Edinburgh. Ninety acres were covered with the buildings. The Exhibition was



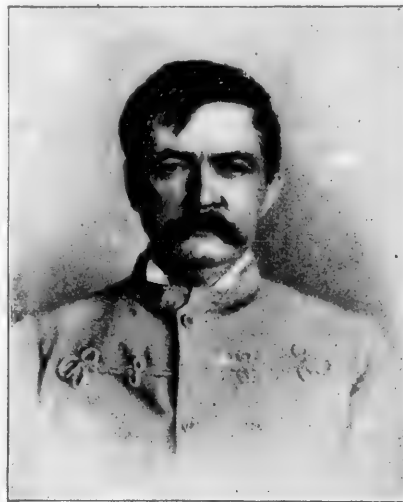
EDINBURGH CASTLE.

opened with great ceremony by the Duke and Duchess of Edinburgh. The Duke of Buccleuch, the Provosts of Glasgow, Leith, Perth, Aberdeen, Dundee and Manchester, and many other eminent persons were present. In the following month, June, the Exhibition was visited by the Lord Mayor of London, in state. In this month, also, the Edinburgh Free Public Library was opened by the Earl of Rosebery; and Mr. H. M. Stanley, the African Explorer, received the freedom of the city.

The year 1890 opened with a crushing blow to the party of Home Rule. The moral fall of Parnell—the undefended co-respondent in the divorce suit of O'Shea vs. O'Shea and Parnell—split the Irish Party into two unequal sections, Parnellites and Anti-Parnellites.

In November, 1890, the Lincoln judgment delivered by the Archt of Canterbury (Dr. Benson), practically closed the long Ritual controversy in the Church of England.

In this historic Church trial, Dr. King, the Bishop of Lincoln, was prosecuted for ritualistic practices connected with the holy communion. All the charges were dismissed except two. His practice of breaking the bread and taking the cup "not before the people," and making the sign of the cross while pronouncing absolution and benediction, were declared to be unjustifiable additions to the ceremonies of the church, and were ordered to be discontinued. No costs were allowed on either side. An appeal against the judgment was made to the judicial committee of the Privy Council. In August, 1892, the appeal was dismissed.



HENRY MORELAND STANLEY.

In 1890 the Anglo-German agreement as to spheres of influence in Africa was signed at Berlin. This agreement disposed of much African territory, first explored by the great missionary, David Livingstone, and the intrepid explorer, Henry M. Stanley. The last twenty-five years have witnessed a great struggle for the acquisition of African territory between the leading European powers. Great Britain, France, Germany and Italy, have competed with each other in claiming districts of the Dark Continent. In 1878, the Berlin Conference agreed to the independence of the vast region known as the Congo

Free State. The Powers in the Conference were to have equal rights in the Congo State, but that was all. No portion of the State could be annexed by any of the Powers. The Anglo-German agreement mentioned above, set boundaries between other great districts, thus lessening the possibilities of future disagreements.

In 1890 Western Australia became a self-governing colony.

In 1890 the Dominion Parliament adopted a loyal address reaffirming unalterable adhesion to the Mother Country. In the same Parliament a message of thanks for kindly treatment was received from Chief Crowfoot, on behalf of the Blackfoot Indians. This incident is but one illustration of many that Canadians



NORTH-WEST MOUNTED POLICE FORCE, REGINA.

have inherited the secret of successfully dealing with subject races. That secret seems to lie in the genial combination of firmness with good faith. All the treaties made by Canada with the native races have been carried out with the utmost exactness, except that more has been done for the Indian than was stipulated.

The Indians of the prairies of the Canadian North West have been under treaty for years. What has been the result? The whole of the Indians have been tranquilized. Not only is there no discontent or disaffection, but the Red Man has become thoroughly attached to the White Man's government. A force of 750 Mounted Police is amply sufficient to preserve order.

Compare with this the system in the United States. There the only good Indian is the dead Indian. There the policy is bad faith, fraud and injustice. Goad the Indians to rebel, then shoot them for rebelling. Their treaty Indians are miserably clad, miserably sheltered, half-starved, cowed by military oppression into sullen obedience, watching for a chance for revenge.

In 1891 the Liberal party in England adopted the "Newcastle Programme," consisting of the following articles :

One Man, One Vote.

Home Rule for Ireland.

A thorough Reform of the Land Laws.

The Direct Popular Veto on the Liquor Traffic.

The Disestablishment and Disendowment of the Established Church in Scotland.

The Equalisation of the Death Duties upon real and personal property.

The just Division of Rates between owner and occupier.

The Taxation of Mining Royalties.

A "Free Breakfast Table."

The extension of the Factory Acts; and

The "mending or ending" of the House of Lords.

In 1891 the cause of Imperial Federation took a forward stride. Addressing a deputation on the subject, Lord Salisbury recognized the fact that Federation is "emerging out of the region of aspiration into the sphere of practical schemes." "A United Empire," he said, "means a Zollverein and a Kriegverein, a customs union and a union for war. The former is for the present unattainable, but the latter, growing more important every year as the world shrinks under steam, and the colonies lose the protection distance formerly offered them, already exists in some fashion, and is capable of indefinite development."

On this subject Sir Charles Tupper wrote suggesting a scheme. It consisted of two articles. The first was that every Imperial Cabinet should contain as Cabinet Ministers three colonials, representing Australasia, Africa, and Canada. He suggested that the representatives of those three great British communities in London should be leading members of the Cabinet of the day of the country they represent, going out of office when their Government changes. In that

way they would always represent the country, and necessarily the views of the party in power in Canada, in Australasia, and in South Africa. That would involve no constitutional change; it would simply require that whoever represented those dominions in London should have a seat in their own Parliament, and be a member of the Administration. It requires no material alteration in the constitution of the country. It would be found entirely practicable to provide that when a member of the Cabinet of Australasia, or South Africa, or of Canada represented it in London, he should *ex officio* be sworn a member of the Privy Council in England, and practically become a Cabinet Minister there, or, at any rate, should be in a position to be called upon to meet the British Cabinet on every question of foreign policy.

The second suggestion was that of a five-shilling corn duty on all breadstuffs imported into the British Empire from outside. He thought that that would be sufficient, and as experience had proved that it takes a rise of ten shillings a quarter to add a halfpenny to a four-pound loaf, he thought the change might be carried out with very little opposition.

Sir Charles objected to any direct contribution from the colonies to the army and navy. Instead of adding to its defence, the strength of a colony would be impaired by taking away the means which it requires for its development and for increasing its defensive power, if it were asked for a contribution to the army and navy. Any such contribution would be utterly insignificant in its value compared with what is now being accomplished.

In 1891, in Australia, as already mentioned, a scheme for the federation of the six provinces was vigorously undertaken. The Diamond Jubilee year may see it brought to a successful issue.

Speaking of the scheme approved by the Conference, Sir Henry Parkes said :

"It contemplates throughout a loyal union with the Empire, and the sublime and entrancing idea of a future world-wide confederation of the English-speaking race must have influenced at progressive stages the minds of its framers.

"The churches even now have awakened to the advantages to church government and discipline, and to the organization of spiritual effort, which would come by federation. The Primate of the Church of England, the Cardinal of the Church of Rome, the heads of most of the Nonconformist Churches, I am

assured, are fervent Federationists. The far-seeing men engaged in commerce are Federationists. The men of enterprise of all classes are Federationists. The men who have chosen as their calling the pursuit of literature, more especially those conducting the higher class of newspapers, are Federationists. In two years more the whole Australian population will be welded into one enthusiastic body of Federationists."

Sir Henry Parkes dismissed the opposition of the Republicans in a single paragraph. He said: "Men, who really have faith in nothing, profess to believe in the necessity for some organic change in the free government which shelters their useless lives. But the dominant feeling of the Australian populations is soundly loyal to the Liberal institutions and the noble mission of the Empire. Without cause for separation, it is hardly within the range of probability that the young nation would separate at the bidding of the most worthless part of her population. She will be true to the builders, and set her face against the destroyers."

In 1891 an insurrection broke out among the Wadigoes, in German East Africa. The Germans had laid a tax on palm kernels. This the untutored savage mind resented in the simple, ancient way. Their insurrection followed close upon the destruction of a German expedition into the Waheho's country. On June 25th Lieutenant Zalinski marched inland with seven German officers, seven non-commissioned officers, two cannon, two Maxim guns and 350 native troops. The expedition was carefully equipped, armed with Mauser rifles, and the blacks were the best fighting material procurable. But on August 19th, as they were forcing their way through the bush at a place called Ihela, they were attacked by the Wahehes, men of Zulu race, armed with guns and ammunition obtained from the Portuguese. After a brief resistance Lieut. Zalinski and five officers and five non-commissioned officers were killed, the cannon and Maxims were taken, and 300 of his men were speared or shot. On Sept. 18th two officers, two non-commissioned officers and sixty-five men, the sole survivors of the expedition, arrived at Bagamayo.

On the 6th of June, 1891, that great statesman and patriot Sir John A. Macdonald died, aged 76. At Kingston a public funeral was given him, attended by a vast concourse of members of parliament and representative men from every

province of Canada. Commemorative services were held in every city, town and village of the Dominion. Nor was his death allowed to pass unnoticed in the capital of the Empire. Honors were paid to his memory in Westminster Abbey. A memorial slab was placed in St Paul's Cathedral. Sir John was one of the masterly parliamentarians and administrators of the century. While the Confederation of the British North American Provinces was not in any sense the work of one man, it is true that Sir John more than any other statesman led that great movement, and worked out the terms on which the Dominion was formed. The official tributes paid to the dead statesman at London were without precedent in the history of the British Dependencies. They marked the growing sense in Britain of the dignity and importance of the colonies. They marked, too, the growing sense of Imperial Unity at the very heart of the Empire.



THE RIGHT HON. THE BARONESS
MACDONALD OF EARNSCLIFFE.

Sir John had the true conception of John Macdonald" contains the following, which will be read with interest "Sir John's knowledge of human nature and his ability to select proper instruments to carry out his will have often been noticed, and he was not so narrow that he could not see merit in any person outside his own party. A good instance came to the notice of the House in 1885, when he was accused of favoritism in the civil service. In reply Sir John said: 'The hon. gentleman speaks about political favoritism. Well, I suppose that all governments, so long as they are govern-

what Imperial Federation must be. From his public utterances may be gathered the solution of the problem. A galaxy of nations, with complete local government, united for commercial development, for offence and for defence, and with one voice in foreign affairs. With Sir John Imperial Federation was a rooted conviction, animating his whole policy from beginning to end.

Mr. E. B. Biggar's
"Anecdotal Life of Sir



SIR WILLIAM C. VAN HORNE, K.C.M.G.
President of the Canadian Pacific Railway.

ments, are charged with favoritism. So far as I know, our skirts are as clear of that as any government I ever knew. I will mention one instance in the department of which I am the head (Department of the Interior). I took a gentleman, who is very considerably junior to the other officers. He was well known to me, and all his antecedents were Liberal, Grittish, if I may use the expression without offence. But he was recommended as a first-rate officer, and he is now deputy head of the Department of the Interior. I mean Mr. Burgess. Mr. Murdoch asked if Mr. Burgess had not changed his politics since, to which Sir John replied: Not that I am aware of. I never asked what his politics were, and do not know. I do not know whether he has found out the early errors of his ways, or whether he adheres blindly to those errors. I only know he is not blind in any way as an officer; he is not blind to the exigencies of the department, and he does his work faithfully and well."

After Sir John Macdonald's death her Majesty the Queen wrote to Lady Macdonald a kind letter of sympathy, and created her a peeress in her own right, under the title of Baroness Macdonald of Earnscliffe.

In 1891 the Canadian Pacific Railway was practically completed through securing an entrance to New York city over the lines of the New York Central Railway. This was effected by agreement between the Companies.

Sir William C. Van Horne, the President of the Canadian Pacific Railway, is of Dutch origin, though an American by birth. Springing from the old patron stock of the Manhattan colony, he is a Westerner by birth, having been born in Illinois in February, 1843. Entering the railway service at an early age, he worked himself upwards by degrees until he reached his present prominent position at the head of one of the greatest railway corporations of the world.

George, Baron Mount-Stephen, the Past President of the Canadian Pacific Railway, was born at Dufftown, Scotland; in 1850, he came to Canada and settled in Montreal. Mr. Stephen was created a Baronet in 1886, and a Baron in the Peerage of the United Kingdom in 1891.

In 1891, Sir John J. C. Abbott, K.C.M.G. became Premier of Canada. He assumed office on the 16th of June, 1891, and resigned on the 24th November, 1892. He died the following year. A feeling tribute to his memory was



BARON MOUNT-STEPHEN.
Past President of the Canadian Pacific Railway

paid by Sir John Thompson, in a speech on the occasion of the unveiling of a statue to Sir John A. Macdonald, at Hamilton, on the 1st of November, 1893. After alluding to the unveiling of the statue as a loving task, Sir John Thompson proceeded: "But as I have spoken of this duty as a task of love, I must tell you that it is a task of sadness to, because in recalling him to memory the voice of affection stirs one's heart so deeply that remembrance of the past, with its personal feelings and personal affections, is almost too much for the man who has this duty to perform. But how much sadder is the task made when I recall that, though but a little over two years ago we laid his body in the tomb, this afternoon, in the city of Montreal, the grave lies open to receive his successor—when I remember that to-day we are unveiling the statue of one great man, and at this time to-morrow we shall be laying another great public man—another great son of Canada—in his last resting-place upon this earth. The man who succeeded him was worthy to be his successor. Sir John Abbott's great qualities of brain and heart, his great qualities of statesmanship, his great abilities and great desire to serve this country will never be thoroughly understood by the Canadian people, because his career as first Minister was so short. But in remembering the services of the two, in remembering the great characteristics of the two, in remembering the great love for Canada, the great attachment to Canada, the great desire to serve Canada, of the two, and the great devotion to British connection of the two—I say it of the last as well as of the first, without fear of contradiction or carping—the great love of Canada and the great patriotism of these men, places upon us who have public duties to discharge, either in connection with the Ministry or as simple voters or electors in this country a great responsibility which we ought to consider well this afternoon. The sight of that statue of the departed leader in your public place, and the memory of the man who succeeded him in public life as Premier of the Dominion of Canada—the memories of these, which will do honor to this country, I care not what political or personal failings they may have had, place upon us the responsibility of carrying on—you as electors, us as public men—the task which they laid before them, and in the execution of which they strove with the genius of master-hands, guided by the inspiration of heaven which falls upon truly patriotic men."

CHAPTER XVI.

Ten Years Later—The Second Five Years.

Mining at Kimberley—The French Commercial Treaty—Sir John Thompson—The Armenian Atrocities—The Venezuelan Question—Arbitration with the United States—Dr.

Jameson and the Transvaal.



THE year 1892 was marked in South Africa by the rapid development of gold mining in the Transvaal, and of the diamond mines at Kimberley.

Of the Transvaal we shall hear more presently. At Kimberley the De Beers Company produced over twenty millions of dollars worth of diamonds from four mines of a total area of 111 acres. Fifteen hundred white men at five dollars a day, and twelve thousand natives at one dollar and a quarter for twelve hours labor, find constant employment at the mines.

They work in the diamondiferous region, which is enclosed and screened by means of high barbed-wire fencing and lofty corrugated-iron hoarding, and is further safeguarded externally at night by numerous armed patrols, and by powerful electric lights casting a glare on every spot otherwise favorable to intending marauders.

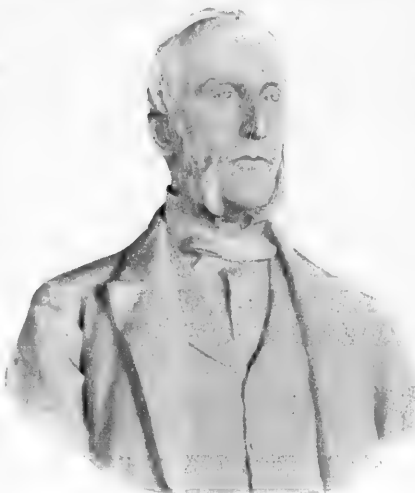
At the bottom of a long incline, in tunnels nearly 800 feet below the surface of the earth, the mine runs through the very heart of the diamond-bearing stratum. It is hot, stifling and intensely dark. The natives work as nude as statues, and as unconscious of their nakedness as Adam and Eve before the fall. The mine is sloppy and dirty, and every now and then a deafening roar announces that dynamite blasting is going on in a neighboring chamber.

Almost the only fatal accident of magnitude recorded in the annals of these mines occurred three years ago, when some timber caught fire, and over three hundred imprisoned natives were choked to death. The ruling passion for gain then proved strong up to the last; many bodies were found in attitudes which showed that their dying gasps had been expended in efforts to plunder their comrades of the little leather purses which most of them wear suspended round the waist.

Speaking of Kimberley, Lieut.-Col. Knollys says: "In truth, Englishmen have

every reason to be proud of this South African town as worthily representing our nation. Free from much of the rowdyism and sharp practice of many gold-mining districts, from the surly loutishness and savage treatment of natives which render odious certain Boer settlements, and from the bar-and-billiard propensities of a very considerable section of torpid Cape Town manhood, the law-abiding characteristics of Kimberley are unimpeachable, its energy and enterprise are incontestable, and the gentleman-like, highly educated tone of its society is unsurpassed throughout this part of the world."

In April of 1892 died Alexander McKenzie, aged 70. Originally a Scotch mason he came to Canada, and gradually rose till he became Liberal Premier in the Dominion Parliament, 1873-8. He visited Great Britain in 1875, and was graciously received by her Majesty at Windsor. A statue is about to be erected to his memory by the Laurier Government.



HON. GEORGE BROWN.

(From a Bust.)

The death of office in the *Globe* building, Toronto, by a discharged workman, on the 25th of March, 1880. He died in the following May, universally regretted by Canadians of all shades of politics.

Originally a Scotch Alexander Mackenzie recalled the assassination of another notable Liberal leader — the Hon. George Brown. Mr. Brown was a stalwart Liberal of the old school. Mr. Mackenzie wrote a life of Mr. Brown — a touching tribute to the memory of his old friend, who had done so much for Liberalism in Canada. Mr. Brown was shot in his own

In 1893 a commercial treaty between the United Kingdom (on behalf of Canada) and France was signed. The treaty, which came into force on the 14th October, 1895, provides that still wines less than 26 per cent alcohol shall be

exempt from the surtax or *ad valorem* duty of 30 per cent. That the duty of common and castile soaps shall be reduced one-half, and the duty on nuts, almonds, prunes and plums by one-third. That tariff advantages granted by Canada to a third power shall be enjoyed by France, Algeria and French colonies. That certain goods of Canadian origin shall be subject only to the minimum duty in France, Algeria and French colonies, viz.: canned milk, condensed milk, fresh water fish, fresh lobsters and crawfish preserved in their natural forms, apples and pears, fresh or dried, preserved fruit, building timber, wood pavement, stoves, wood pulp, shaving extract, common paper, prepared skins, boots and shoes, common furniture, except chairs, flooring of soft wood and wooden ships. Any tariff advantage to other powers is to be extended to Canada.

In May, 1893, the Earl of Aberdeen was appointed Governor-General and arrived in Canada in September. On the 15th of March, 1894, the Earl first met Parliament. He assured the members he was deeply impressed with the heartiness of the reception accorded him in his visits to the cities of the Dominion. In replying to the Address, Sir James Grant, after alluding to the departure of Lord and Lady Derby, continued, "We have also received here within a very short time a nobleman and lady, Lord and Lady Aberdeen, whose names went before them, inasmuch as they lived in Canada for a short time, and although that period itself was extremely short, still they endeared themselves to the people with whom they came specially in contact in that Garden of Eden, as I might call it, Hamilton, one of the cities of Ontario, so that when they left Canada there was a unanimous wish felt among the people throughout the country, that we might be so extremely fortunate as to have them here as representing her Majesty. Lord Aberdeen was selected as Governor-General of Canada. He was Viceroy of Ireland, and greatly distinguished himself in that most responsible position. We rely upon it that all the people of Canada will receive at his hands that degree of justice which is bound to flow from any representatives sent to Canada by her Majesty. As for Lady Aberdeen, we knew her well. She takes, also, a deep interest in our people, in our institutions, and in everything that appertains to the welfare of the country."

In Africa, Nyassaland, the country which Livingstone first brought before the conscience of the world, was made a British Protectorate.



HIS EXCELLENCY THE EARL OF ABERDEEN,
Governor-General of Canada.

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In December, 1894, Canada lost in Sir John Thompson one of its most upright and unselfish men ; the Empire, one of its noblest sons.

Sir John Thompson was born on the 10th November, 1844. He was only fifty years of age at the time of his death. He had entered upon a Parliamentary career but a few years before as the representative for Antigonish, N. S. He had been a prominent figure on the Nova Scotia bench, but, like Sir Oliver Mowat, was prevailed upon to serve his country in a political capacity. He rose to prominence rapidly. He became a member of the Canadian Cabinet under the late Sir John Macdonald, as Minister of Justice, succeeding to the Premiership in 1893. He enjoyed more freedom from attack on the part of the Opposition than most statesmen of high rank. His death called forth expressions of universal regret both in Canada and in Great Britain.

As a statesman Sir John Thompson was eminently fitted for the position which he was called upon to fill, and which he did fill with the highest honor to himself and advantage to the country. As a parliamentarian he had few equals. As a debater he had no peer in his own Parliament. He will be especially remembered for his moderation, his honesty, his judicial fairness in dealing with all classes and all public questions.

Sir John Thompson's strong point was his thorough loyalty to Canada and his genuine devotion to the Empire. He had a comprehensive grasp of the position of Canada as an independent country, and as an integral part of the British Empire. The events connected with his last trip to England gave us an insight into Sir John the Canadian, and Sir John the Imperialist. In the face of a strong and united English opposition, Sir John Thompson boldly upheld the principle that Canada must be supreme in the matter of copyright, just as she is supreme in the matter of her tariff.

The Standard of London, praised his Tariff policy as advantageous to the Empire: "It is partly owing to his ability and tact that the history of Canada since 1892 has been one of eventful prosperity. True to the policy of the party that he led in the Dominion, he steadily opposed negotiations which under the special name of free-trade would have brought the commerce of Canada within the elaborate and comprehensive protectionism of the United States. Although he was not a free-trader, he was always ready to arrange treaties of commerce which he thought would lead to the same practical result. Nor was he altogether disappointed, perhaps, because the negotiations that he



HON. SIR JOHN S. D. THOMPSON, K.C.M.G.

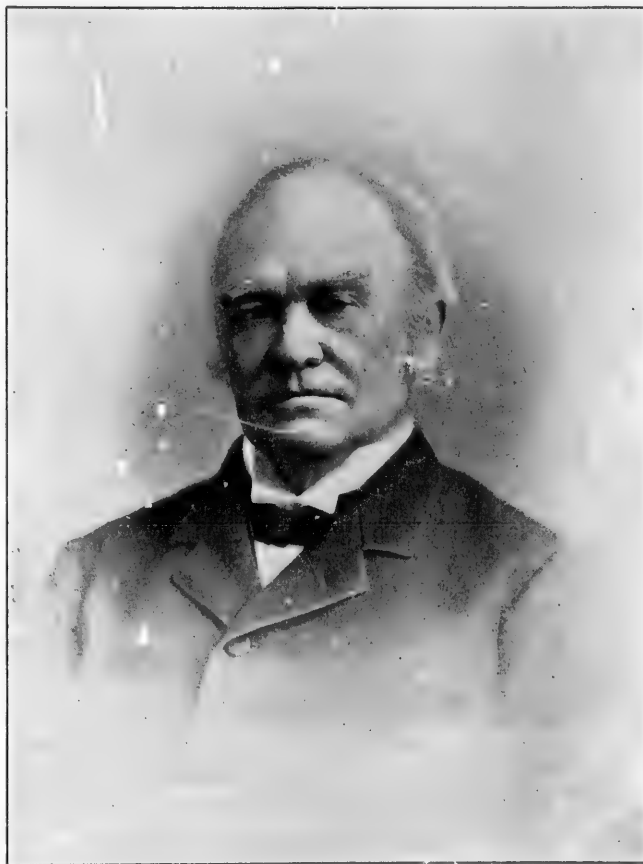
conducted had not brought about a complete system of reciprocity between Canada and the United States, since he belonged to the sanguine and loyal and progressive party in the Dominion who are hoping and working for a customs union which shall ultimately embrace the whole British Empire."

Sir John Thompson and family spent the summer of 1894 with Senator and Mrs. Sanford, at their residence, Sans Souci, Lake Rosseau. At that time an arrangement was made between Sir John and Senator Sanford to visit England, not only with a view of securing a rest which the Premier was greatly needing, but also to perform that important function, being sworn in as a member of the Privy Council of Great Britain. They left New York for England in October. While in London the Premier was much engaged with the members of the British Cabinet upon important unsettled questions between the Colony and the Mother Country. While waiting for the consideration by the British Cabinet of some of the points at issue, the visitors from Canada made an extended tour throughout France and Italy, each being accompanied by one of their daughters. During this trip, while Sir John evidenced at times that he was suffering severely, his health was apparently improved and he became stronger. On their return to London, Sir John took up the work which he had left incomplete. At the same time Senator Sanford was engaged with Hon. Cecil Rhodes in negotiating a Trade Treaty with the Cape Colonies. The basis of such a treaty was arranged, and would undoubtedly have been in force to-day were it not for the untimely death of the late Premier.

On the 12th of December, Sir John left the Royal Palace Hotel, where he was staying with the Senator and his family, for Windsor, to be sworn in as a member of the Privy Council. He was unusually bright in spirits and appeared to be in his usual health. Four hours later it was heralded throughout London and the world that the Premier had dropped from the dinner table, dead.

Sir Charles Tupper, as the representative of Canada, and Senator and Mrs. Sanford, with family, as friends of the late Premier, were immediately called to Windsor.

Britain justly honored in death the man who had been so faithful to her in life. Sir John's funeral was made a State affair in Britain, and was attended by many distinguished persons. The aged Queen caused herself to be wheeled into the room where the remains lay, and placed wreaths of lilies and laurel on the coffin of the man who had been sworn in as a member of her Privy Council



HON. SIR JOHN J. C. ABBOTT, K.C.M.G., Q.C.

only a few hours before his sudden death. A State funeral service was held at St. Paul's Cathedral before the remains were removed to Portsmouth.

A man-of-war, the *Blenheim*, conveyed Sir John's remains across the ocean to the land of his birth and to his last resting-place. At the request of the Government, Senator Sanford accompanied the remains on the *Blenheim*. At Halifax, at St. Mary's Roman Catholic Cathedral, an impressive funeral service was conducted. Canada showed herself not ungrateful to her distinguished son. With limitless opportunities for corrupt gain Sir John Thompson had died poor. The country made liberal provision for his widow and for his children.

In 1894, Asia, for the first time in a generation, became the scene of the world's chief interest. A quarrel over Korea, forced by China upon Japan, led to open war. Although outnumbered by ten to one, the Japanese, by virtue of superior civilization, had an unbroken series of victories. They were able to dictate terms of peace to their thoroughly crushed and humbled foes. The immediate results of the war were an exhibition—the first ever made on any considerable scale—of the powers of modern battleships, and a demonstration of Japan's marvelous progress in the arts of war as well as in those of peace. The more important and lasting results will, apparently, be these: "The Hermit Kingdom of Korea" will be redeemed from barbarism and opened to civilization; Chinese conservatism and corruption will no longer dominate the affairs of all Eastern Asia; China itself will no longer menace the world as an invulnerable and potentially all-destructive force; and civilized Japan will henceforth rank as the chief native power of Asia, and, indeed, one of the great Powers of the world. Despite its cost, this is a consummation for which humanity is to be profoundly grateful. It alone is sufficient to make 1894 an ever-memorable year.

In 1894, Sir Mackenzie Bowell became Premier of the Dominion. He assumed office on the 21st of December, 1894, and resigned on the 27th of April, 1896.

In 1895, the delimitation of the Pamir Boundary between Russian and British-Indian territory removed a source of irritation between the two powers.

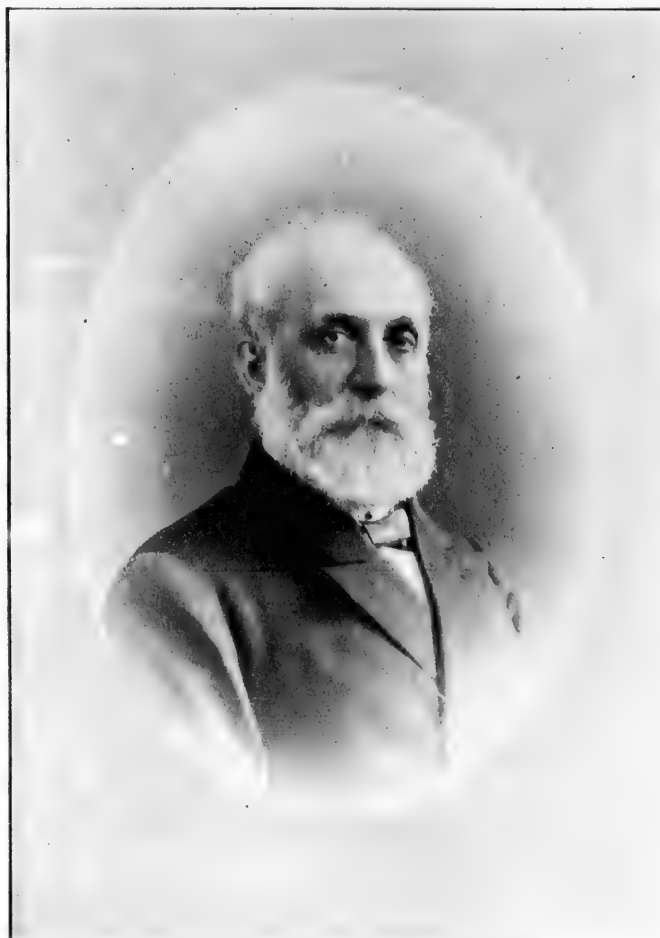
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HON. SIR MACKENZIE BOWELL, K.C.M.G.

In 1895, the territories of the British East African Company were taken over by the Crown as the British East African Protectorate.

Bechuanaland was the same year annexed to Cape Colony.

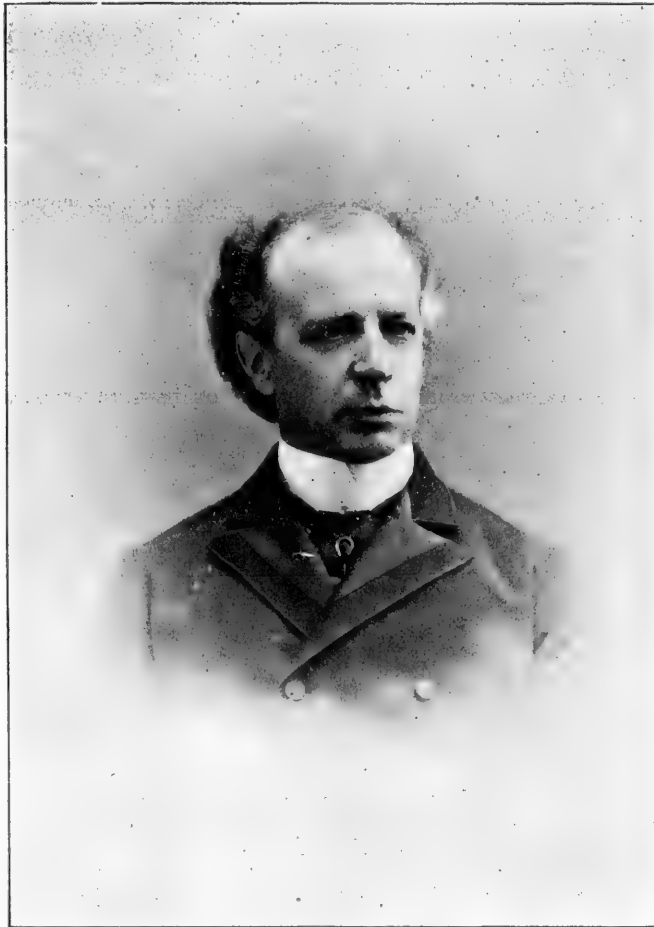
Towards the end of the year 1895 Turkish atrocities in Armenia concentrated the horrified attention of Europe. For years back the wretched Armenians had been the victims of shameful outrage. Kurdish brigands lifted the last cows and goats of the peasants, carried away their carpets and valuables, raped their daughters and dishonored their wives. Turkish tax-gatherers followed these, gleaning what the brigands had left. Lest anything should escape their avarice, they bound the men, flogged them till their bodies were a bloody, mangled mass, cicatrised the wounds with red-hot ramrods, plucked out their beards hair by hair, and tore the flesh from their limbs with pincers. Often, even then, dissatisfied with the financial results of their extortion, they hung the men, thus beggared and maltreated, from the rafters of the room, and kept them there to witness with burning shame, impotent rage, and incipient madness, the dishonoring of their wives and the deflowering of their daughters, some of whom died miserably during the hellish outrage.

European intervention, in the form of diplomatic protests, unaccompanied by military force, was treated by the Sultan with the contempt it deserved.

For years British diplomacy had been engaged in unsuccessful efforts to induce the Republic of Venezuela to come to an amicable delimitation of the frontier. Great Britain was willing to surrender four 120 square miles, and to submit to arbitration an additional eight 330 square miles outside of the Schomberg line of 1841.

This offer of Great Britain was interpreted by Mr. Secretary Olney, of the Cleveland Cabinet, to constitute an act of aggression by an effete monarchy on an American republic. Starting from the premise that it was unnatural and objectionable that Great Britain should fly her flag upon any portion of the Western hemisphere, he proved, to his own satisfaction, that for Britain to occupy a single acre claimed by an American republic was a violation of the Monroe Doctrine and an aggression. He summoned Great Britain to submit its right to half the colony of British Guiana to the arbitration of an unnamed third party.

Lord Salisbury repudiated with dignity and emphasis the extraordinary assertion that the position of Great Britain in America was either unnatural or in-



HON. WILFRID LAURIER.
Premier of the Dominion of Canada.

expedient. He set forth the real purpose of the Monroe Doctrine. He recounted the previous attempts of the British Foreign Office to arrive at a satisfactory arrangement. He professed himself still ready to settle the controversy amicably by concessions mutually agreed upon between the parties concerned.

British statesmen generally have publicly expressed the hope that cordial relations will continue to exist between Great Britain and the United States.

Mr. Arthur Balfour, in a speech at Manchester, on January 15th, 1896, said: "The time must come when some one, some statemen of authority more fortunate even than President Monroe, will lay down the doctrine that between English-speaking peoples war is impossible."

Mr. Joseph Chamberlain, in a speech at Birmingham, on January 25th, 1896, said: "I should look forward with pleasure to the possibility of the Stars and Stripes and the Union Jack floating together in defense of a common cause, sanctioned by humanity and by justice."

But the attitude of Lord Salisbury, or the pacific utterances of his colleagues, did not satisfy President Cleveland. President Cleveland announced to the world his determination to take the whole question into his own hands; to appoint a commission exclusively composed of his own countrymen, and to compel Great Britain by force of arms if necessary to accept the award of this commission, whatever it might be. The British people realized the absurdity of such a proposition.

In the United States the President's message was received with uproarious applause. A thousand newspapers offered to back him with their last dollar and their last relation. The Senate and the House of Representatives raced to be first to approve his "American" policy.

How did the people of Great Britain take the invitation to quit or fight? With amazed incredulity. Themselves unconscious of ill-will to America, they could not believe that the President represented the real feelings of those for whom he officially spoke.

Britain still indulges that dream. From it, when they think they are strong enough, the United States will ungently awake her.

Perhaps, however, before that time arrives the domestic troubles in the United States—the struggle between Capital and Labor, the ill-feeling between Blacks and Whites, between North and South, between East and West—will be more than the United States Government may be able to face. In the meantime, if

the destinies of the British Empire continue to be directed by statesmen of the calibre of a Palmerston, a Russell, a Salisbury, a Chamberlain; if generals of the capacity of Wellington, of Wolseley, of Roberts, continue to lead her armies; if her navy continues to maintain its present supremacy, we need have no fear of the result.

We in Canada were fully alive to the tremendous importance of the situation created by the President's message. We cast our eyes over our defences, and hastened to arm our militia with improved weapons. On us would fall the brunt of the first attack. They were seventy millions, we were five, yet here there was no flinching. If the United States appeared unanimous in their hate of Britain, we were undoubtedly and wholly unanimous in our love and our loyalty to Canada and the Empire. The diplomatic twaddle about "kindred blood" and "common language" deceives Britain. It never deceived us. The thought of humiliating Great Britain exercises an irresistible fascination upon a certain class of our neighbors to the south. We are fully aware of the fact. The invasion of Canada is only put off to a more convenient season.

If a certain class of politicians in the United States, who are so eager to provoke Great Britain, ever succeed in letting "slip the dogs of war" without strong justification, the result will be bad for them, and worse for the United States. The whole world would condemn such a war between the two great English-speaking nations. The better class of Americans would themselves be the first to cry "Shame!" They would never give their support to such a fratricidal war. The lessons of the War of 1812 should be remembered by the United States. That war was declared by the United States without reasonable justification. The New England States were so opposed to the war that they threatened to secede from the Union. The Americans of the New England States could not and would not give their active support to a war which they knew was unjustifiable. A house divided against itself must fall. This want of unanimity among the Americans was largely responsible for their failure to carry the war to a successful issue.

The British Government has repeatedly shown its readiness to deal with the United States Government in a fair and friendly spirit. The British Government will never, without strong provocation, declare war against the United States. Should the United States, without strong provocation, declare war against Great Britain, there will be such dissensions among the Americans them-

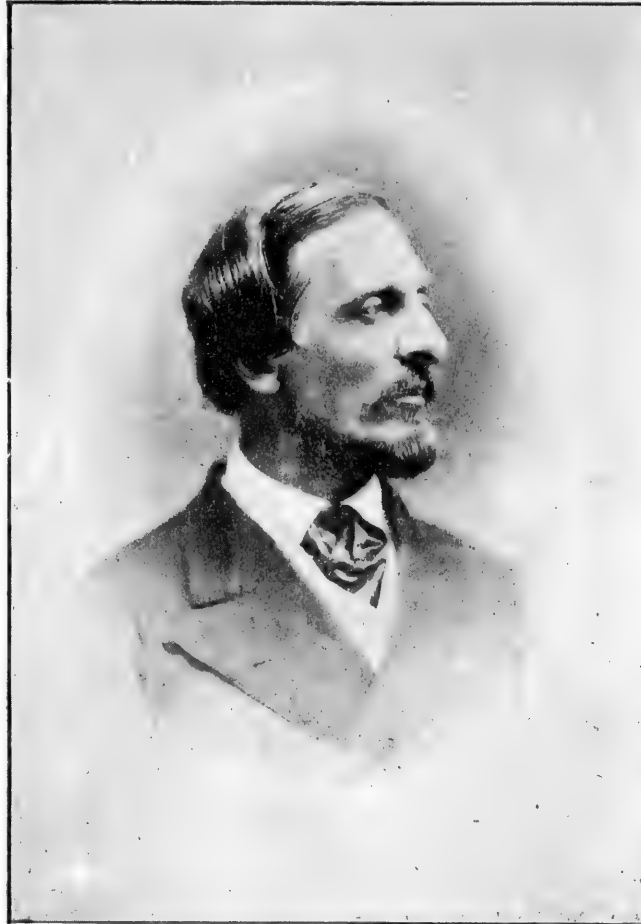
selves, such a want of unanimity among the people, as to foredoom the war to failure, and to assure the success of Great Britain.

Following the publication of the President's message on the Venezuelan question came panic on the New York Stock Exchange. Mr. Chauncey Depew calculated that the depreciation effected by the message amounted to 200 millions sterling—the precise amount which Germany exacted from France as the indemnity for the War of 1870. That was a big object lesson. It added fuel to the fire of jealous hate.

The message of the President of the free and independent Republic of the United States of America was welcomed with hearty satisfaction by the despotic ruler of the Turkish Empire. The Sultan of Turkey felt free now to work his brutal will on desolated Armenia. Britain must be busy for a while guarding her own. Therefore the outrages went on. Britain, threatened by America, opposed by Russia and her satellite France, intrigued against by Germany, found herself in an *impasse*. To interfere effectually in Armenia meant war with the three greatest powers of Europe at once, with no sure ally, and with the almost certainty that the United States would seize the opportunity with cruel effect.

The Cleveland Commission sat. Venezuela was represented before it by counsel; Great Britain indirectly by Blue Books. What conclusion it came to, or whether it came to any, is not known. Venezuela, on the advice of Mr. Olney, declared its willingness to exclude from arbitration all districts settled for fifty years and over. This was accepted by Lord Salisbury.

On January 11, 1897, a General Arbitration Treaty between Great Britain and the United States was signed in Washington by Sir Julian Pauncefote, British Ambassador, on behalf of the British Government, and by Mr. Olney, Secretary of State, on behalf of the United States Government. By the Treaty, whenever any dispute arose which diplomacy could not settle, the two Governments were to appoint a jurist each; the two were to appoint an umpire and the three were then to decide the question. If they were unanimous, there was no appeal from their decision. If, however, they did not agree, or if the question in dispute involved territory or more than five hundred thousand dollars in money, the question was to go before the Board of Arbitration, composed of three judges of the Supreme Court of each country; the decision of any five to be final. If they could not agree upon an umpire, the nomination was to be left to the King of Sweden.



THE EARL OF DUFFERIN.
Governor-General of Canada, 1872-1877.

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By the Senate of the United States, a three-fourths majority of which must ratify a treaty, amendments were adopted, practically eviscerating the treaty.

A little more than a year before, the United States was threatening Great Britain with war by sea and land out of their passionate devotion to the principle of arbitration. Great Britain consented to arbitration on the terms proposed by the United States. The action of the Senate is a significant commentary on the sincerity of the professions of public men at Washington.

Canada does not feel disposed greatly to bewail the fate of the Arbitration Treaty. The Colonies generally have lost when arbitration was resorted to. With the exception of the *Alabama* Claims, boundary and other disputes have always been settled at the expense of the Colonies. If it were possible to make an unselfish friend of the United States, Canada, in the interests of the Empire, might bear with much. Canada can see little to feed hopes of friendship on.

Not to go back to ancient history, or even to the time of the Fenian raids, but looking at the recent past, we see much to discourage hopes of lasting friendship with the United States.

There is the rejection by the Senate of the Fisheries Treaty of 1888; the dismissal on a flimsy pretext of the British Ambassador, Sir Lionel Sackville West; the appointment of Mr. Patrick Egan, a fugitive from British justice, as U. S. Minister to Chili; and President Cleveland's late unfriendly message to Congress.

At intervals during the past seventy years American fishermen have preyed on Canadian fisheries, and the predatory work has been upheld by public opinion in New England and in Washington. The seizure of British sealers on the high seas is too recent to be forgotten, at any rate by a Colonial whose misfortune it is not to belong to the Peace Society. The end is not yet.

In January, 1896, news of the Jameson raid was flashed across the world. The Transvaal Republic is managed by a close oligarchy of Boer squatters. Fifteen thousand adult males govern with absolute authority a country as large as Spain, inhabited by 500,000 persons, more than one-half of whom are natives.

The development of the gold mines poured into this patriarchal organization a turbulent flow of industrial life. Johannesburg sprang in a few years from a mining camp to a wealthy English city of 100,000 inhabitants. On these newcomers was laid seven-ninths of the burden of taxation. Not one of them was

allowed a voice in the management of the land recovered from bankruptcy by their industry and enterprise.

Sixty thousand men reared under free institutions could not consent to be permanently governed like Kaffirs. They formed the Uitlanders' (or Outlanders) League. They asked the right to share in making the laws they were compelled to obey, in voting the taxes they were obliged to pay. They petitioned for the use of English and Dutch in official documents and in the schools.

President Kruger, the Boer dictator, refused to accede to any of their demands. Should they fly to arms, as he hoped, he was ready. For months back Germany had been supplying him with arms, ammunition and German Army officers. The Kaiser was in a plot with him to end the predominance of Great Britain secured by the Convention of 1884. Of the existence of this plot Mr. Rhodes was aware. He had stationed Dr. Jameson, with all the available force of the Chartered Company, where it could block the advance of Ger-



PAUL KRUGER ("OOM PAUL")
President of the South African Republic.

mans from their warships, in Delagoa Bay.

The Uitlanders acted as the wily Kruger expected them to act. "If Paul Kruger wants to play George III.," said one of the American Uitlanders, "Johannesburg must play Boston." But insurrection in these days is not a matter of Bunker Hill; it is an affair of arms of precision. Kruger had a bat-

ttery of quick-firing Krupp guns on the Hospital Hill, directly overlooking the streets of Johannesburg. Here practice in working the guns had been going on incessantly. The town was living under a grinning arsenal of threats of bloodshed. Such action may terrify men into submission; it may also madden them into an outbreak. The Uitlanders, as many as could, sent away their wives and children from what might soon prove to be a city of doom. They knew that Dr. Jameson, with the armed police of the Chartered Company, was posted not

far from the borders of the Transvaal. To him the leading citizens despatched an appeal for help. "All feel," they wrote, "that we are justified in taking any steps to prevent the shedding of blood, and to ensure the protection of our rights. Should a disturbance arise here, the circumstances are so extreme that we cannot but believe that you and the men under you will not fail to come to the rescue. Nothing but the strongest necessity has prompted this appeal."

Would Jameson leave his post? If he did he would play into Kruger's hands. He would put himself in the wrong by crossing the border, and he would leave the way open for a German advance.

Dr. Jameson's position in the Company made him a servant of the Crown. To respond to the appeal for help involved a breach of the Queen's regulations. Confident that when the facts became known his conduct would be approved, determined at any risk to save a great city from sack and a slaughter, the Administrator gave directions for cutting the telegraph wires, to prevent recall, leaped into the saddle and rode at the head of his troops across the border.

Across the border he rode straight into the midst of a largely superior force of Boers waiting for him, intrenched in an impregnable position. How came they right across his line of march?

Mr. Garrett, in his volume on the "Story of an African Crisis," has given us the explanation, and it is (as one chooses to take it) ludicrous or instructive, or both. He had the facts from a resident on the spot. The trooper who was sent to cut the Pretoria wire was, "in plain words, drunk. He started on his errand, carrying with him the most elaborate and detailed instructions. He was to cut the wire in two places, so many yards apart, take it so far into the veld, and bury it so deep. He did cut certain wire, and he did make an effort, at least, to bury it in the veld. But the wire which he cut was that of the peaceful railing by which a farmer kept his cows in. Then with a good conscience he reeled back."

Three distinct engagements with the Boers took place, in all of which Jameson's men fought gallantly. They were powerless to break their way through the lines. His cartridges spent, his men faint with hunger and parched with thirst, their legs skinned with saddle raws, their horses too worn out to charge, Jameson rallied his men for the last struggle. For three hours they fought, till they heard the roar of cannon. They thought it was the Johannesburgers coming to their assistance. It was the Boer heavy artillery.



MARQUIS OF LORNE.

Governor-General of Canada, 1878-82.

Hoisting a torn shirt, Jameson surrendered unconditionally. The Johannesburgers, ignorant of Jameson's advance, had been lulled by promises of the franchise for themselves and English for their children. Johannesburg was disarmed. Dr. Jameson and his companions were surrendered to the British authorities, were tried in London, fined and imprisoned for varying terms.

So far everything had gone well with Kruger. So far the feeling in Great Britain was unanimous against the invasion of a peaceful, friendly State. But now the Boer's luck deserted him. His secret ally, the Kaiser, sent him a telegram congratulating him on his victory "without appealing to friendly powers." This veiled promise of help was followed by the despatch of another German man-of-war to Delagoa Bay, and by strong pressure put upon the Portuguese Government to allow an armed force of Germans to march to the Transvaal through their territory.

At this Great Britain flamed into wrath. The extent, the intensity, the universality of British indignation startled those who had watched with a sneer the imperturbability with which Great Britain had received the warlike menaces of the United States.

Portugal refused Germany the right of way. Mr. Chamberlain, Colonial Secretary, publicly announced that the treaty right of Great Britain to control the foreign relations of the Transvaal would be enforced at all hazards. Germany snarled, calmed down, denied that the telegram meant anything—and waits for a better opportunity to forward that Colonial expansion so dear to the Kaiser.

Jameson blundered. His blunder did good service. It revealed to the British people the young Kaiser, grandson of their Queen, crouching ready to stab them in the back. It did more. It rallied round Great Britain all her stalwart sons. Colony after colony sent messages of cheer and promises of support. To them the grey old Mother in her "splendid isolation" turned with glistening eyes.

. . . Let Kipling tell us the Mother's thought:

Flesh of the flesh that I bred, bone of the bone that I bare;

Stark as your sons shall be—stern as your fathers were.

Deeper than speech our love, stronger than life our tether. . . .

So long as the blood endures,

I shall know that your good is mine: ye shall feel that my strength is yours;

In the Day of Armageddon, at the last great fight of all,

That Our House shall stand together and the pillars do not fall.

Dr. Jameson blundered into the trap prepared for him. The German Emperor blundered too in showing his hand and his teeth too soon. Henceforth Britain knew, what Mr. Rhodes had long known, that a conspiracy, with the Kaiser deep in it, was afoot aimed at British predominance in South Africa.

Jameson's police being either killed, imprisoned or shipped off to England, the opportunity was too good to be lost by the Matabeles. They rose on the settlers, ravaged and murdered.

To Cecil Rhodes—"Concentrated England"—belongs the honor of victory. Never was there a danger in that campaign which he did not confront with good temper and cheery composure. Though he had resigned official position, though he lived and acted but as a simple citizen, his personal character was such that when the war came to a close the natives refused to acknowledge anybody but himself as chief of the whites. His action in venturing unarmed into the camp of enemies who might easily have speared him, or made him a hostage, was but the most conspicuous of the many acts of wisdom and courage which have given him the ascendancy he so righteously deserves.

In 1896, Li Hung Chang, the distinguished Chinese soldier and statesman, made his memorable trip to the Western world, visiting Europe and America. He was accorded an audience with her Majesty. He greatly impressed all with whom he associated. When General Grant returned from his historic tour of the world, he declared that during his travels he had met four truly great personalities—Bismarck, Gambetta, Disraeli and Li Hung Chang. He added that he thought the last named the greatest man of the four.

The year 1896 is known in Canada as the year of the Three Ministries. Sir Mackenzie Bowell resigned on the 27th of April. He was succeeded by Sir Charles Tupper, who assumed office on the 27th of April and resigned on the 8th of July. The Reform party having secured a large majority in the general elections then held, Mr. Laurier succeeded as Premier, and assumed office on the 9th of July.

The Hon. Wilfrid Laurier was born November 24th, 1841, at St. Lin, L'Assomption, in the Province of Quebec. His family was among the first established in La Nouvelle France. M. Carolus Laurier, his father, was a provincial land surveyor. M. Wilfrid Laurier, after finishing his literary studies

at the College L'Assomption, entered the law office of the Hon. R. Laflamme. He was called to the Bar of Lower Canada in 1865, having taken in the previous year the degree of B.C.L. at McGill University, Montreal. In 1880 he was appointed a Q. C. M. Laurier is an earnest advocate of Temperance: he was a delegate to the Dominion Prohibitory Convention in 1875. In 1871 he was elected a member of the Legislative Assembly of the Province of Quebec. In 1874 he entered the Parliament of the Dominion. His brilliant abilities were recognized at once. In the Mackenzie Government of 1877 he received the portfolio of Inland Revenue. He was a steady supporter of the Hon. Edward Blake, and on the resignation of the latter succeeded him as leader of the Opposition. It is confidently anticipated that the Hon. Wilfrid Laurier, as Premier, will do all that in him lies to weaken and destroy those sectional, racial and religious prejudices which have been so prejudicial to Canada.

CHAPTER XVII.

The Victorian Era.

Progress in Sixty Years—Public Education—Work Among the Poorer Classes—The Temperance Movement—The British Army and Navy.



ON Wednesday, September 23, 1896, the reign of Queen Victoria became the longest in the history of the British Empire. On that day she exceeded the reign of her grandfather, George III., having reigned fifty-nine years, three months and three days. Telegrams from all parts of the world were received by her Majesty conveying the congratulations of sovereigns and ministers. In response to the suggestion that the event be made the occasion for a great celebration, her Majesty expressed her desire to defer the celebration to the sixtieth anniversary of her accession, June 20, 1897.

In looking back over the achievements of the Victorian Era, we find good ground for satisfaction.

During the years immediately preceding the accession of Queen Victoria to the throne peace reigned in every land. Experiments of all kinds were being everywhere tried, including the experiment of standing still. Liberalism was the ruling creed in theory, even among statesmen who resisted it in practice. The artistic and literary ideals of the preceding century were falling into disrepute. In the State, beneficent and important changes were being slowly made. The Empire was expanding in every direction. Its population was rapidly increasing. When the Queen came to the throne there were some 26 million persons living in the United Kingdom; now there are 40 million. In 1840 the population of Canada and Newfoundland was 1,690,000; now it is nearly six million. In Australasia there were in 1837 about 175,000 white people living; there are now nearly five millions. Four persons are now living in Australasia for every five persons living in the United States at the beginning of the present century. In the course of a hundred years the population of the United States expanded from five millions to over 65 millions. A similar growth may be in store for Australasia in the twentieth century.

Sixty years ago the British Empire comprised an area of four million square miles, with a population of 40 million. To-day the area is 12 million square miles, with a population of 400 million.

When the Queen came to the throne the masses were seething with discontent. Their leaders were clamoring for political reforms. The great Reform Act had enfranchised the Ten Pound householder; it had done nothing for the laboring classes. By the Reform Acts of 1867 and 1884 power was transferred from the middle classes to the democracy. The workingmen of the United Kingdom dominate the elections now. As a consequence, Chartism is dead. Reform Associations have perished of inanition. Universal contentment has taken the place of universal agitation.

So has it been with the Colonies. In 1837 Canada was in the throes of rebellion. At that time she was broken up into different provinces, administered under different laws, by different governors. Her provinces have been confederated under one Governor-General, and one system of law. Her autonomy is practically complete. She is now as loyal as England.

In 1837 none of the great Australian colonies enjoyed representative government. Now they are all self-governing. The present year may see them confederated into a Dominion as compact and as powerful in the South as our own is in the North.

South Africa, too—the older colonies at least—is in possession of autonomous institutions. The same may be said of the West Indies.

During the Victorian Era a revolution has been accomplished in the work of public education. In the Mother Country for many years before the Queen came to the throne two great societies, one representing the Church of England, the other the Nonconformist bodies, had done much for the education of the children of the poor. Large numbers, however, were never reached by these institutions. Multitudes were growing up unable either to read or write. In 1839 a Committee of the Privy Council for educational purposes was established. Grants were made, year by year, for the erection of schools. The Act of 1870 at length established on a firm footing a national system of compulsory education, since rendered wholly free to the pupil.

In the twenty years from 1875 to 1895 the number of primary schools inspected rose from nearly seventeen thousand to nearly twenty-three thousand; and the average attendance from over two million to nearly six million.



LORD LANSDOWNE.

Governor-General of Canada, 1883-1888.

During the same period the cause of education was promoted by other means. The governing bodies of the Public Schools were made more popular; the funds of overgrown or obsolete charities were applied to middle-class education. Schools of Science and Art were provided in almost every large town. The Universities and the ranks of the Civil Service were thrown open to all.

While the direct results of compulsory national education are valuable, the indirect results are no less valuable. The child at school is learning more than to read and write. The clean, well-conducted schoolroom insensibly instils ideas of the worth of cleanliness, order and comfort, which bear fruit in after life. Every step in the direction of extending the educational system has been followed by a decrease both in pauperism and in crime. Whether the extension of education has been the cause of the decrease in crime may be disputed; the coincidence of the two movements cannot be challenged. In 1850 one child out of every 89 persons in England and Wales was at school; one person out of every 20 was a pauper; one out of every 700 was a criminal. In 1890 one child out of every 8 people was at school, only one person out of every 36 was a pauper; and only one person out of every 2,400 was committed for trial.

The Victorian Era has seen another great revolution—a revolution in sentiment. When the Queen came to the throne a doctrinaire political economy influenced the minds of the ruling classes. It was heresy to question the principles laid down by Adam Smith, and extended by John Stuart Mill. Self-interest was held to be the power that moved mankind. Cheap labor was the god of their idolatry; cheap labor, toiling in unventilated mines and grimy factories, herding in squalid, overcrowded tenements, with the gin-shop for a "People's Palace," and the workhouse as a porch to the churchyard.

In the earlier years of the reign masses of the people were without work or the prospect of it. From 1839 to 1842 the roll of paupers in England and Wales rose 30 per cent. The conditions under which the working classes lived were as serious as the constant increase of pauperism. In every large manufacturing centre thousands had no homes but cellars. None of the great towns had any regular system of drainage. The filth from the street ran into the cellar homes of the laborers. The foul street was the children's playground. A man in his working clothes would be refused admittance into a public park. There were no Factory Acts regulating the employment of women or children. Not until 1847 did the Legislature forbid the employment of children under eight in a factory,

and the employment of persons under eighteen for more than ten hours a day. In her poem "The Cry of the Children," Miss Elizabeth Barrett, afterwards wife of the poet Browning, drew a picture from the life well worth recalling.

Do ye hear the children weeping, O my brothers,
 Ere the sorrow comes with years ?
 They are leaning their young hearts against their mothers,
 And *that* cannot stop their tears.
 The young lambs are bleating in the meadows,
 The young birds are chirping in the nest,
 The young fawns are playing with the shadows,
 The young flowers are blowing toward the west ;
 But the young, young children, O my brothers,
 They are weeping bitterly !
 They are weeping in the playtime of the others,
 In the country of the free.

"For oh," say the children, "we are weary,
 And we cannot run or leap ;
 If we cared for any meadows, it were merely
 To drop down on them and sleep.
 Our knees tremble sorely in the stooping,
 We fall upon our faces trying to go :
 And underneath our heavy eyelids drooping
 The reddest flower would look as pale as snow.
 For, all day, we drag our burden tiring
 Through the coal-dark underground,
 Or, all day, we drive the wheels of iron
 In the factories, round and round.

Aye, be silent ! Let them hear each other breathing
 For a moment, mouth to mouth !
 Let them touch each other's hands, in a fresh wreathing
 Of their tender human youth !
 Let them feel that this cold metallic motion
 Is not all the life God fashions or reveals :
 Let them prove their living souls against the notion
 That they live in you or under you, O wheels !
 Still, all day, the iron wheels go onward
 Grinding life down from its mark,
 And the children's souls, which God is calling sunward,
 Spin on blindly in the dark.

Happily all that has been changed. Little children are no longer forced to crawl up chimneys to sweep them, or to toil deep down below the grass in breathless, sunless, coal mines. There is no cellar population now in the big cities. In our day parliaments do not consider it beneath their dignity to care for the interests of the tenant and of the laborer. Wealthy men build improved cottages on their country estates, and model dwelling houses on their town properties; bestow parks, baths, public libraries and museums on the community. With the growth of the reign sympathy between class and class has grown, reducing steadily the limits of "Darkest England." It is no exaggeration to say that the best men and the best minds in Great Britain without distinction of rank or class are now laboring for the advancement of the people. They see, as never before, that the nation is a unit, that the welfare of each depends ultimately on the welfare of all; that the higher a man stands, the greater his wealth and privileges, so much more bound is he to extend a helping hand to those who need it. Towards this happy result the example of the Queen, of her wise and kindly Consort, of her admirably trained children, have in no small degree contributed.

In the uplifting movement the religious bodies have taken a noble share. When the Queen came to the throne the Oxford Movement was in its infancy. Whatever may be thought of the writers of the "Tracts for the Times," it must be admitted that the result was a quickened interest in the welfare of the people. The zeal displayed by Churchmen was fully shared by Roman Catholics on the one side, and by Nonconformists on the other. Sir Walter Besant in a published interview said: "The condition of the poor in our great cities is immensely improved. Everything is better. Wages are better. Hours of work are shorter. Food is cheaper and better. Clothes are cheaper and better. In a word, the improvement is immense. I can well remember the time when never, by any chance, did one see, what one can see any day in London at present, food lying in the gutter, great lumps of white bread lying about in the streets. . . . Although much remains to be done in the way of housing the poor, in this respect also I have noticed the greatest improvements. Look at the many model buildings now to be seen in all parts of London, and especially in the south of London, where tens of thousands of workmen are now lodged in clean flats, which possess proper lavatories and sanitary conveniences, which were the exception twenty years ago. . . . I was asked a year or two ago to write an



LORD STANLEY OF PRESTON, (THE EARL OF DERBY).
Governor-General of Canada, 1888-1893.

article for the *Cosmopolitan Magazine* describing the working of a London parish, and I investigated the matter fully, taking as my field of study a riverside parish in the East End. I found there a hundred laymen and women volunteers working for nothing under the guidance of the clergyman and his curate, visiting the poor, organizing services, forming clubs for the boys and girls, mothers' meetings, and meetings for the sale of clothing at very cheap rates to the poor, who otherwise would never have been able to buy any clothes at all. There were also a creche for the babies, and a house where children were kept from after school to bed time. Then there were the Sunday schools, excellent for keeping children out of mischief. Libraries were organized, performances and lectures. In fact, the lives of the clergy of the East End of London are one long round of ceaseless activity. This activity of the Church has been growing for the last twenty years."

Another movement of the Victorian Era has co-operated with religion in ameliorating the condition of the people—the Temperance movement. This has always had her Majesty's warm support. Four years before her accession, at a meeting at Preston, Richard Turner, an artisan, asserted that "nothing but te-tetotal will do." The word was immediately adopted and became the rallying cry of the Temperance army. In 1843 the National Temperance Society was formed. Ten years later the United Kingdom Alliance for the legislative suppression of the sale of intoxicating liquors was inaugurated. In 1873 the Church of England Temperance Society was founded, with the Archbishop of Canterbury as president. In the same year a Temperance Hospital was opened in London. In Canada, temperance workers have accomplished much. They are active and aggressive. The Dunkin Act and the Scott Act are mementoes of their influence upon the legislation of the Dominion.

There will ever be wide differences of opinion as to the advisability of keeping people sober by "Act of Parliament." Many people think that moral suasion alone should be used. Others maintain that the strong arm of the law should be called in; that moral and legal suasion should go hand-in-hand. The Prohibition Question is one of the disturbing elements in Canadian politics to-day. If prohibition is demanded by an overwhelming majority of the people, a prohibitory law could be enforced. If a prohibitory law were placed on the statute book by a narrow majority, an attempt to enforce it would probably do more harm than good.

In a previous chapter we had something to say of the horrors of war. The day may yet come, to use the poet's words :

When the war drums beat no longer
And the battle flags are furled,
In the Parliament of Man,
The Federation of the World !

Till that day does come, however, we must be prepared for possibilities. Is Great Britain prepared to defend her vast interests at home and abroad ? Compared with the standing armies of the Continental Powers the Army of Great Britain appears insignificant. The number of the regular forces at home and in the colonies is about 150,000. The little state of Roumania, with a population of only five millions, can mobilize an army of 200,000 men. When it is considered that Germany can place more than three and a quarter millions of men in the field, fully armed ; that on a war footing the French army numbers two millions of men ; that the army of Russia includes more than two-and-a-half millions of men, it is little wonder that the nation grows uneasy at times. Experts in military science declare that in all that relates to military organization and the preparation for war, Great Britain is as far behind Switzerland to-day as France was behind Germany in 1870. There is a growing conviction that the administration of the British Army is wasteful ; the training of the troops superficial ; the organization of the field force altogether incommensurate with the needs of the Empire. Much is hoped from Lord Wolseley, the recently-appointed Commander-in-Chief. The nation has good reason to be thankful that the principle is firmly established, once and for all, that the professional head of the armed forces of Great Britain shall be the ablest man whom the Army can produce.

One of the best and healthiest signs of the age—a sign that Britain with all her luxury has not entered on a stage of decline—is the Volunteer movement. It is the revolt of common sense against vague dreams of never-ending peace. It is a declaration that home is worth fighting for, that guarding wealth is as necessary and as honorable as getting it. The continued existence of this force—now numbering a quarter of a million men—is proof that the military virtues are neither despised nor neglected in Great Britain.

It is said that General Blücher, riding through London, exclaimed "Mein Gott ! What a city to sack !" Other Prussian generals, perhaps, have the same

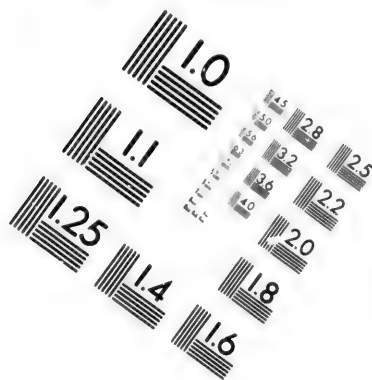
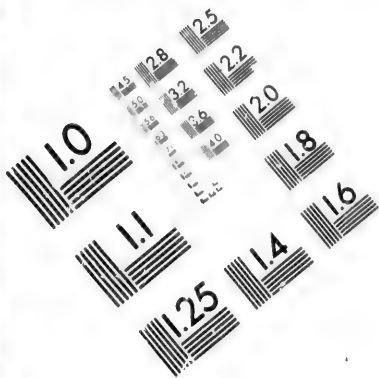
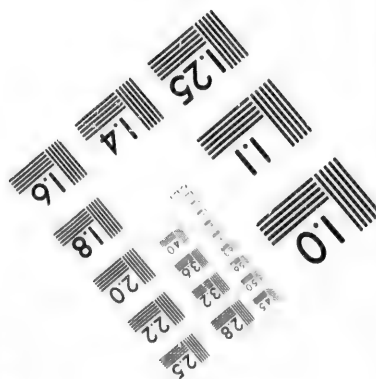
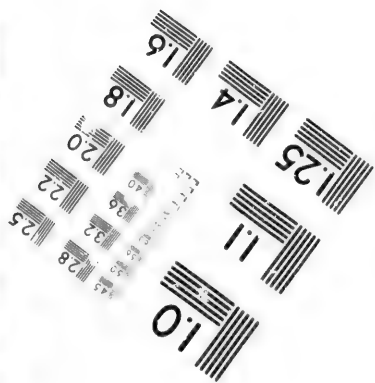
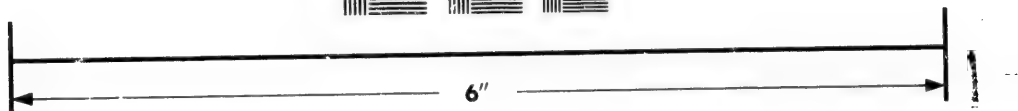
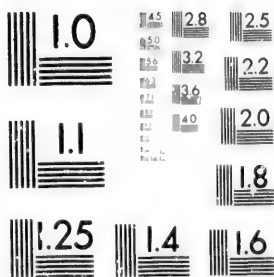


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impression. Lord Bacon has a pregnant sentence: "When a warlike State grows soft and effeminate, they may be sure of a war, for commonly such States have grown rich in the time of their degenerating, and so the prey inviteth, and their decay in valour encourageth a war."

Canada has a splendid Volunteer force. Many complaints have been heard in the past at the parsimonious treatment meted out to the Volunteer force. The Government of Canada should deal liberally with the Volunteers. Their services have proved valuable in the past. The force should be kept in a high state of efficiency in case of emergencies.

A great Continental war cannot be long delayed. Then the bleeding will be to the death. It is madness to think that British interests will be respected unless Britain is ready to fight for them. A lamb cannot persuade a wolf. "The prey inviteth and decay in valour encourageth a war."

It is too much the fashion to believe that Britain, though unprepared, has such patriotism that she could call armies from the soil, and such manufacturing power that she could quickly make up for past deficiencies. No. Not if every grown man sprang to his feet and called for arms; not if every manufacturer in the country were set to work producing guns, rifles and stores of all kinds. This trust in the production of armies, just when they are wanted, ignores two great facts. First, the training of soldiers, and more especially of officers, requires years before efficiency is reached. Secondly, such stores as guns and other necessities cannot be made under a time which counts by years. Recent experience, too, shows that while an army of Canadian militia, or volunteers, led by a competent strategist would make no bad showing against any force they are likely to be called upon to meet: in a Continental war Britain would have to encounter soldiers perfectly trained, armed and captained.

Seven years ago a Parliamentary Commission, after a most thorough investigation, after hearing the evidence of military experts such as Lord Wolseley, declared that the existing state of affairs as regards national defence was "unsatisfactory and dangerous," and utterly condemned the administration of the army. Parliament adopted the report, suppressed the evidence on which it was founded, and—did practically nothing. Such a policy is little short of suicidal.

The efficiency of the British Navy is fortunately far in advance of that of the British Army. "Trust in God and keep your Navy big" is the revised version of Cromwell's famous maxim. Even by the most fanatic upholder of peace the

HIS HONOR LIEUTENANT-GOVERNOR KIRKPATRICK AND MRS. KIRKPATRICK.



Navy is deemed essential to the well-being of the Empire. The British Navy is as much the insurance of the mercantile marine as docks and piers are an insurance against wind and weather. It would be as wise to grudge the expense of docks and piers as to grudge the expense of an adequate protecting Navy. Every object Great Britain can desire depends upon her sea power. Social progress; international influence; the power to "help the right, and heal the wild world's wrong;" the mission to be leaders and organizers of the backward and chaotic races beneath her rule—all these depend upon maritime supremacy. Shakespeare but foreshadowed what Englishmen of to-day believe, when he made Hastings exclaim:

Let us be backed with God, and with the seas,
Which He hath given for 'fence impregnable,
And with their helps only defend ourselves;
In them, and in ourselves our safety lies.

The paramount political duty of Great Britain is to make and keep herself invincible upon the sea.

The British Navy of to-day is the creation of the Victorian era. In 1840 the screw propeller was introduced. In 1841 the total number of ships of all sizes in commission was 183. In 1851 the Navy consisted of 339 sailing, and 161 steam vessels. In 1854 the number of sailing vessels had decreased to 315, while there were 97 screw steamers and 114 paddle steamers.

In 1860 the French Government built a plated frigate, *La Gloire*. Not to be outdone, the British Admiralty launched a few months later the *Warrior*—the largest vessel then in the world with the exception of the *Great Eastern*—the first British iron-plated steam frigate.

In 1863 the Navy had attained formidable dimensions. It consisted of 1,014 vessels of all classes; 85 line of battle-ships, 69 frigates, and 30 screw corvettes.

In 1868 the *Monarch*, the first armor-clad turret ship, was launched; tonnage 8,930, horse-power 8,000. The then monarch now takes a humbler rank, as a third-class battle-ship.

In 1888 the ironclad *Nile* was launched, the largest and most formidable battle-ship constructed till then. It is of 11,940 tons burden, 12,000 horse-power, 345 feet long, and 73 feet broad.

In 1889 the Navy afloat consisted of 62 armored vessels, 29 protected, 282 unprotected, total 373 ships; tonnage, 6,791,444; cost, \$178,178,590.

In 1891 was launched the *Royal Sovereign*; up to that date the largest battle-

ship in the Royal Navy. It is of 14,150 tons burden, 13,000 horse-power, in length 380 feet, in breadth 75 feet.

This huge vessel has since been surpassed by the *Hannibal*, the *Illustrious*, the *Jupiter*, the *Magnificent*, the *Mars*, the *Majestic*, the *Prince George*, the *Victorious*, each of 14,900 tons. The British Navy at present afloat or approaching completion consists of 690 vessels, 87 of which are fully armored. This vast fleet requires a complement of nearly 105,000 officers and men, when fully manned. At present the complement of officers and men is about 89,000.

Of the new vessels the most remarkable are the torpedo-boat destroyers, *Albatross* and *Express*. The speed of the *Albatross* is 32 knots, or about 36½ miles, an hour. The *Express* is an even swifter ship. It can steam 33 knots, or 38 miles, an hour. These vessels are each of 7,500 tons burden.

The self-governing colonies contribute to Imperial defence. In this important task Canada has her share. Before Confederation every important town in British North America was garrisoned at the expense of the Mother Country. To-day not a British soldier is found in the Dominion, except the garrison at Halifax. The force at Esquimaux, though consisting of British marines, is sustained at Canada's sole expense.

A year ago Sir Charles Tupper said: "At the union the five thousand miles of British coast on the Atlantic and its fisheries were protected by the British Navy. That service is now performed by seven steam cruisers, owned, armed, and maintained by Canada. At the union not a graving dry-dock existed in British North America. Now they are provided at Esquimaux, Quebec, and Halifax, where the largest men-of-war are docked. . . . The highest military and naval authorities declare the Canadian Pacific Railway, which brings Yokohama within 20 days of London, and nearer by 1,000 miles than *via* New York, and enables naval crews, soldiers and guns to be sent from Halifax to the fortifications at Esquimaux in six days, to be of inestimable value to the defence of the Empire."

Canada arms and trains annually about 38,000 volunteers; maintains a small permanent force of three batteries of artillery, two troops of cavalry, and four companies of infantry; maintains nine military schools in the various provinces, in addition to the Royal Military College at Kingston, which has already furnished eighty officers who stand high in the estimation of the British Army.

Canada stands pledged to an annual expenditure of nearly \$12,000,000 for

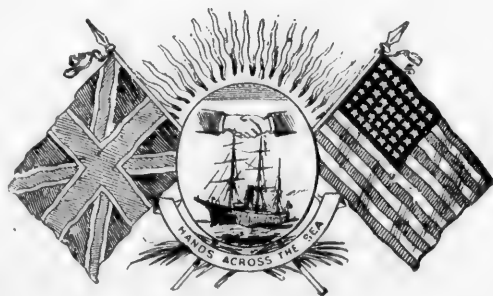
services vital to the defence of the Empire. Canada costs the Mother Country not a single dollar for any purpose whatever, civil, military or naval. Were Canada an integral portion of the United States, England would lose some of the best strategic harbors on the Atlantic and Pacific, and would require not a smaller but a larger navy.

Good men on both sides of the Atlantic dream of an Anglo-American Alliance. Even the dream is commendable. But let not Britain recruit a man or build a ship the less. The desire for peace was never yet hindered by the knowledge that the party of the other part was able and ready to hold its own.

Isolation, however "splendid," is still isolation. In Europe, England is not loved. There is not a single important Continental State which is not frustrated in her ambition, outraged in her vanity, or injured in her interests by the magnitude, the wealth, the power of the British Empire. Britain can become popular in Europe only by casting off her Colonies, sinking her Navy, refusing to take a farthing from her creditors, and dynamiting herself into the circumambient ether.

The feeling of the Continent is not altogether unknown in Britain. All the more do certain of her leading men dwell with satisfaction on what they take to be the substantial unity existing between the English-speaking race divided by the Atlantic.

Mr. Stead suggests as a symbol to express this underlying unity the sketch reproduced below :



CHAPTER XVIII.

The Victorian Era—Continued.

Orders of Merit—Canadians holding Imperial Honors—Advances in Social Science—Prison Reform—Electricity—Travel and Exploration.



DURING her long reign the Queen has created a considerable number of Orders of Merit. The earliest of these is the Victoria Cross, a military and naval Order for the reward of the highest and most unselfish valor. It was instituted in February, 1856. It is intended for officers and privates alike, and is valued as the greatest earthly distinction.

It is a Maltese cross, made from the iron of the cannon taken at Sebastopol; in the centre is the crown, surmounted by the lion; below is the scroll, "For Valour"; on the clasp are branches of laurel; the cross is suspended from it by the letter V, a red ribbon being used for the army, a blue for the navy. The decoration carries with it a pension of \$50 a year. The winner of the Victoria Cross bears after his name the letters **V.C.** Since the institution of the Order 404 persons have received the decoration, one, the Rev. James W. Adams, being a regimental chaplain.

In 1861, the Prince Consort devised, and the Queen instituted, an Order of chivalry for her new subjects in India. It is known as "The Most Exalted Order of the Star of India." The star consists of rays of gold issuing from a centre on which is a star in diamonds resting on a circular ribbon of light-blue enamel, bearing in diamonds the motto, "Heaven's light our guide." The collar is composed of the lotus of India, of palm branches tied together in saltier, and of the united red and white rose. In the centre is an imperial crown, and the whole is enamelled on gold. The badge is an onyx cameo of her Majesty's head, set in a perforated and ornamented oval containing the motto of the Order, surmounted



THE VICTORIA CROSS.

by a star, all in diamonds. The ribbon of the Order is sky-blue, with a narrow stripe of white at each edge.

In 1862 her Majesty instituted, exclusively for women, the Royal Order of Victoria and Albert.

In 1866, by Royal warrant, "Albert medals" were appointed to be bestowed upon persons who endanger their lives in saving others, at sea or on shore. The medal consists of a gold oval, enamelled in dark blue, with a monogram composed of the letters V. and A. interlaced, and with a gold anchor surrounded by a garter in bronze, inscribed in raised letters, "For gallantry in saving life at sea"; the whole surmounted by the crown of the late Prince Consort.

In 1878, her Majesty instituted the Order of the Indian Empire, to reward services rendered to her Majesty and her Indian Empire, and to commemorate the proclamation of her assumption of the title of Empress of India. This Order is exclusively for men; the badge of the Order consists of a rose, enamelled gules, barbed vert, having in the centre her Majesty's royal effigy, within a purple circle, inscribed "Victoria Imperatrix," with the word "India" on the leaves of the rose, surmounted by an Imperial crown, all gold, pendant from an ornamented gold clasp by an Imperial purple ribbon, an inch and a half in width.

At the same time was instituted the Imperial Order of the Crown of India, exclusively for women. This Order is to consist of the Sovereign, and of such Princesses of her Majesty's Royal and Imperial household, the wives and other female relatives of Princes of the Indian Empire, and other Indian ladies, and of the wives and other female relatives of any of the persons who have held, or may hold, the offices of Viceroy and Governor-General of India, Governors of Madras or Bombay, or of Principal Secretary of State for India, as the Sovereign may think fit.

On St. George's Day, 1883, her Majesty instituted the Order of "The Royal Red Cross," for zeal and devotion in providing for and nursing wounded sailors, soldiers, and others with the army, in the field, on board ship, or in hospitals. Foreigners are eligible as well as British subjects.

In 1886 the Queen instituted the "Distinguished Service Order" for officers of the army and navy, for rewarding individual instances of meritorious and distinguished services in war.

On the 21st of April, 1896, her Majesty instituted the "Royal Victorian Order." Among the Honorary Knights Grand Cross of this Order is H.E. Li Hung Chang, the man of many questions.

Imperial honors have been conferred on a number of Canadians. A list of the most important held by Canadians now living may be given.

There are three Canadians in the Peerage of the United Kingdom.

We have already mentioned the Rt. Hon. Lady Macdonald, of Earncliffe, and Lord Mount-Stephen; the third is Adolphus, Lord Aylmer, of Melbourne, Quebec.

Lord Aylmer was born in 1814, succeeded his kinsman (Frederick William, 6th Lord) in 1848, as Lord Aylmer, Baron of Balrath, Co. Meath, in the Irish Peerage, and a Baronet of Ireland. Lord Aylmer was Colonel of the 54th "Richmond" Battalion of Infantry. His son, Hon. Matthew Aylmer, is Lieut.-Colonel and Adjutant-General of the Canadian Militia, Ottawa.

The ceremony of conferring knighthood has lost much of the ancient ceremonial and glamor. In early times it was a most elaborate ceremony. Fasting and bathing were necessary preparatives. The

purely a military distinction. To-day it has largely lost its military character; it is freely bestowed upon persons who have distinguished themselves as statesmen, diplomats, scholars, lawyers, physicians, artists, etc. Originally conferred with elaborate ceremony, the honor of knighthood in England is now bestowed by a verbal declaration, accompanied with a simple ceremony of imposition of

actual creation was preceded by solemn confession and a midnight vigil. The new knight offered his sword on the church altar. This signified his devotion to the church and determination to lead a holy life. The title was conferred by binding the sword and spurs on the candidate, and by dealing him a blow on the cheek or shoulder, saying: "Be thou a good and faithful knight." Knighthood, as originally instituted, was



THE MOST EXALTED ORDER OF THE
STAR OF INDIA.

the sword. Instances have occurred of knighthood having been conferred by patent, when, for good and sufficient reasons, as in the cases of governors of distant colonies, or other persons occupying distinguished positions abroad, the persons could not appear in person.

Baronet is a hereditary title. This dignity was originally instituted by King James I., in 1611. The number of baronets was restricted to 200. The honor cost each recipient over £1,000 on the passing of the patent. His successors have disregarded the restrictions as to number; while the qualifications regarding birth and estate have not been rigidly adhered to in later times. This dignity has been conferred on several Canadians.

In 1775 a baronetcy was conferred on Gen. Sir William Johnson, Supt.-General of Indian Affairs in North America, under King George II. The title is at present held by Sir Wm. George Johnson, Bart., of St. Matthias, near Montreal, Quebec, who succeeded in 1843.

In 1840 a baronetcy was conferred on Sir James Stewart, Chief Justice of Lower Canada. The title is at present held by his son, Sir Charles James Stewart, Bart., M.A., Barrister-at-Law, of London, England, who succeeded in 1853.

In 1854 a baronetcy was conferred on Sir John Beverley Robinson, C.B., Chief Justice of Upper Canada. The title is at present held by Sir Frederick Arnold Robinson, Bart., (son of the late Sir James Lukin Robinson, Bart.,) of Toronto, who succeeded in 1894.

In 1872 a baronetcy was conferred on the Rt. Hon. Sir John Rose, P.C., G.C.M.G., Receiver-General of the Duchy of Cornwall. The title is now held by his son, Sir William Rose, Bart., of London, England, who succeeded in 1888.

In 1888 a baronetcy was conferred on Sir Charles Tupper, Bart. Sir Charles Tupper has long held a foremost position in Canadian political and diplomatic affairs. He was Prime Minister of Nova Scotia from 1864 until he retired from office with his Government on the Union Act coming into force in July, 1867. He was a member of the final Colonial Conference in London, to complete the terms of Union, 1866-7. He was created Commander of the Bath (civil) in 1867; a K.C.M.G. in 1879; a G.C.M.G. in 1886; and was finally raised to the dignity of a Baronet in 1888.

KNIGHT GRAND CROSS OF ST. MICHAEL AND ST. GEORGE.

Hon. Sir Donald A. Smith, K.C.M.G., G.C.M.G., High Commissioner for Canada at London.

KNIGHT COMMANDER OF THE BATH.

Sir Arthur Laurence Haliburton, K.C.B. (Civil), of London, S.W., England.

KNIGHTS COMMANDERS OF ST. MICHAEL AND ST. GEORGE.

Hon. Sir. Mackenzie Bowell, K.C.M.G., Senator.

Hon. Sir John Carling, K.C.M.G., Senator.



THE ROYAL ORDER OF VICTORIA AND ALBERT.

Sir Adolphe P. Caron, K.C.M.G., M.P.

Hon. Sir Richard Cartwright, K.C.M.G., M.P., Minister of Trade and Commerce.

Hon. Sir Joseph A. Chapleau, K.C.M.G., Q.C., LL.D., P.C., Lieut.-Governor Province of Quebec.

Sir James A. Grant, M.D., K.C.M.G., of Ottawa, Ont.

Col. Sir Casimir S. Gzowski, K.C.M.G., Hon. A.D.C. to the Queen.

Sir William P. Howland, C.B., K.C.M.G., Senator.

Sir Henry G. Joly de Lotbiniere, Q.C., K.C.M.G., M.P.

VICTORIA,

Sir Alexandre Lacoste, LL.D., K.C.M.G.

Sir Hector L. Langevin, C.B., K.C.M.G.

Sir Oliver Mowat, K.C.M.G., Senator, Minister of Justice.

Sir Joseph W. Trutch, C.M.G., K.C.M.G., of Victoria, B.C.

Hon. Sir Charles Hibbert Tupper, K.C.M.G., M.P.

Sir William C. Van Horne, Hon. K.C.M.G., President Canadian Pacific Railway.

KNIGHTS BACHELORS.

Sir Roderick William Cameron, Knt., of Glennevis, Canada.

Sir John Campbell Allen, LL.D., Knt., of Fredericton, N.B.

Sir Louis E. N. Casault, D.C.L., LL.D., Knt., Chief Justice of Quebec.

Hon. Sir P. P. Crease, Knt., of Victoria, B.C.

Sir J. William Dawson, C.M.G., LL.D., F.R.S., F.G.S., Knt.

Hon. Sir Thomas Galt, Knt., of Toronto, Ont.

Sir William H. Hingston, M.D., Knt., Senator.

Sir William Ralph Meredith, Knt., Chief Justice Common Pleas Division, High Court of Justice, Ontario.

Hon. Sir Frank Smith, Knt., Senator.

Hon. Sir Samuel H. Strong, Knt., Chief Justice of Canada.

Sir J. Macpherson Lemoine, Knt., of Spencer Grange, Quebec.

COMPANIONS OF THE BATH.

MILITARY COMPANIONS.

Surgeon-General Herbert T. Reade, V.C., C.B., of Bath, England.

Surgeon-Major-General John B. Cole Reade, C.B., of London, England.

Major-General Charles W. Robinson, C.B., of Chelsea, London, England.

Vice-Admiral Edward W. Vansittart, C.B., of Worthing, England.

CIVIL COMPANION.

Hon. William McDougall, C.B., of Ottawa.

COMPANIONS OF ST. MICHAEL AND ST. GEORGE.

John G. Bourinot, C.M.G., Clerk of the House of Commons.

Major-General Donald R. Cameron, C.M.G., late Commander Royal Military College, Kingston.

Lieut.-Col. Brown Chamberlain, C.M.G.

Joseph G. Calmer, C.M.G., Secretary to office of High Commissioner for Canada at London.

Col. John G. Dartnell, C.M.G., of Natal, South Africa.

George M. Dawson, C.M.G., Director of the Geological Survey of Canada.

Hon. C. E. B. de Boucherville, C.M.G., Senator.

Major Henry G. Elliott, C.M.G., of Tembuland, Cape of Good Hope.

Hector Fabre, C.M.G., Agent-General for Canada at Paris, France.

Sandford Fleming, C.M.G., of Ottawa.

Lieut.-Col. John Fletcher, C.M.G., of Montreal, Quebec.

Hon. James R. Gowan, C.M.G., Senator.



THE IMPERIAL ORDER OF THE CROWN OF INDIA.

William H. Griffin, C.M.G., of Brighton, England.

Major-Gen. Samuel P. J. Jarvis, C.M.G., of Bath, England.

Thomas C. Keefer, C.E., C.M.G., of Ottawa.

Lieut.-Col. Archibald McEachren, C.M.G., of Huntingdon, Que.

Alex. B. Milne, C.M.G., of Victoria, B.C.

Hon. C. A. P. Pelletier, C.M.G., Senator.

Collingwood Schreiber, C.E., C.M.G., Deputy Minister and Chief Engineer of Railways and Canals, Ottawa.

Alfred R. C. Selwyn, F.G.S., C.M.G., of Ottawa.

During the present reign little children have been protected by legislation from the avarice of employers and the indifference of parents. During this reign also hospitals for the special treatment of sick children have been for the first time established. Up to 1852 even London had no hospital for sick children; now they are to be found in every large city in the Empire.

Great advances have been made in sanitary science during the Victorian era. A hundred years ago the death-rate per thousand was 35; forty years ago it was 25, now it is below 18. Legislation has promoted health by the prohibition of intramural interments; by insisting on every town being properly drained and provided with abundance of pure water, and by making provision for the demolition of crowded and unsanitary buildings, and for the erection of suitable dwellings for the working classes.

During the last sixty years great changes for the better have been made in the treatment of the insane. At the beginning of the reign the inmates of many asylums were worse off than the most desperate criminals. They were exhibited to make sport for those who could pay their twopence for the sight, the gaolers making fortunes as the showmen. They were chained to walls in dark cells; they were compelled to sit in rotating chairs; they were confined in iron cages; they were precipitated by trap-doors into what were called "Baths of Surprise," and in some cases semi-strangulation was resorted to. No wonder that under such treatment lives were often lost—the lives, too, sometimes of those who were sane, for in many cases no proper inquiry was made as to the real condition of the patient.

In the present day the insane are treated with the skill, the care and the kindness which their condition demands.

Since the accession of Queen Victoria the systems of law and judicature have been in a large measure reconstructed. In 1837, the property belonging to suitors in the Court of Chancery amounted to nearly \$200,000,000. The simplest case required a dozen years for its settlement. Difficult cases consumed a lifetime or more, often being handed down from father to son, a hereditary disease. In the graphic language of the prize-ring, when one has his opponent completely at one's mercy, they call it having his head "in chancery." Dickens, in his "Bleak House," dealt the abuses of the ancient Court a deadly blow.

In criminal courts a vast reform has taken place. Up to the era of the Queen's reign men accused of burglary or of murder were refused the assistance of coun-



THE ORDER OF THE
INDIAN EMPIRE.

sel. They had to plead their own case as best they might against skilled public prosecutors, who used every resource known to the law to procure their conviction.

The pillory, a scaffold for persons to stand upon to make them publicly infamous, was abolished in 1837.

The condition of the prisons sixty years ago was deplorable. Some attempts had been made here and there to prevent the prisoners from corrupting each other, but with indifferent success. Those who were tried and sentenced were separated from those awaiting trial; the boys were separated from the men, the girls from the women. Yet the results of being committed to prison, for however short a period, were destructive of all morals, and of the last shred of principle. Not a girl or woman who went into prison modest and virtuous but

straightway became ashamed of her modesty and virtue, and came out of prison already an abandoned woman. Not a man or boy who associated with the prisoners for a week but became a past master in all kinds of evil doing. In the night rooms they used to lock up fifteen or twenty prisoners together, and leave them to exchange experiences—and what experiences!

A witty canon of St. Paul's Cathedral thus describes the gaols of England as they used to be:

"There are in every county in England large public schools, maintained at the expense of the county, for the encouragement of profligacy and vice, and for providing a proper succession of housebreakers, profligates and thieves. They are schools, too, conducted without the smallest degree of partiality and favor, there being no man (however mean his birth or obscure his situation) who may not easily procure admission to them. The moment any young person evinces the slightest propensity for these pursuits, he is provided with good clothing and lodging, and put to his studies under the most accomplished thieves and cut-throats the county can supply. There is, to be sure, not a



"ALBERT" MEDAL.

formal arrangement of lectures, after the manner of our universities, but the petty-larcenous stripling, being left destitute of every species of employment, and locked up with accomplished villains as idle as himself, listens to their pleasant narration of successful crimes, and pants for the hour of freedom, that he may begin the same bold and interesting career."

Only prisoners under sentence of death had the luxury of separate cells. These cells were narrow, dark rooms, receiving light only from the court in which the criminals were permitted to walk during the day. The bed was a mat on the floor; the food was bread and water. Yet the poor condemned wretch had little time for grumbling. Execution followed twenty-four hours after sentence.

And in the "Merrie England" of other days it was hard to avoid a hanging. The law recognised 223 capital offences. A man might be hanged for almost anything: If he appeared in disguise on the public road; if he cut down a young tree; if he shot a rabbit; if he poached at night; if he stole anything worth five shillings from a person or shop; if he came back from transportation before his time; a gypsy, if he remained in the same place a year. It was the policy of the Government to get rid of the criminal classes by hanging them.

Hanging is now acknowledged to be the poorest use to which a man can be put. We know how the young Queen shrank from signing a death-warrant. That shrinking of hers, the growing influence of men like Sir Samuel Romilly, the increasing reluctance of juries to convict, led the Government to reconsider its attitude to criminals and to crime. The practical result is that now we have returned to the Divine Law given to Noah: "Whoso sheddeth man's blood, by man shall his blood be shed." For nothing less than murder shall a man's life be taken.

Soon Parliament took in hand the reform of the prison system. That was more than forty years ago. Their first efforts were directed to forming a good staff of officers, to be appointed and retained irrespective of political patronage or of private interest. Then they proceeded to establish the separate system in all common gaols. Separation, of course, does not necessarily mean solitary confinement. Then work was provided for each prisoner; constant work, with an incentive in the shape of a reward for work well done.

Three years ago a Parliamentary Committee of eight members, Herbert Gladstone, chairman, held a thorough investigation of the British prison system. Their report recommends twenty-five changes. Four of these are as follows:

1. Habitual criminals to be kept as a class apart from the other prisoners. It

should be considered whether a new form of sentence might not with advantage be placed at the disposal of the judges, by which these prisoners should be segregated under special conditions for long periods of detention.

2. That two or more prisons should be selected as training schools for all ranks of the prison staff, and be placed under the charge of the most experienced officers in the service, and that probationers should not be returned as belonging to the prison staff. [This is in accordance with the practice in France, where a regular school is established at La Santé Prison, in Paris, for the instruction of prison officers from the various prisons of the Republic.]

3. That the Government grant to prisoners' aid societies should be increased and extended to associations conducted on approved methods for the treating of discharged prisoners. [The success of the British system in reducing crime is very largely due to these associations.]

4. That annual conferences should be held of representatives from the higher ranks of prison officials, managers of reformatories, visiting committees, and prisoners' aid associations, for the purpose of exchanging experiences and ideas, and of establishing closer relations between all officials and public bodies responsible for the management of prisons and the treatment of prisoners.

Ever since the application of steam to machinery inventors had been discussing plans for utilizing it as a substitute for horses in drawing vehicles. George Stephenson invented the first locomotive engine, "The Rocket." In 1830 it was tried with success on the Liverpool and Manchester Railway, the first line opened in England. The Duke of Wellington was a passenger on the first train, and in the opinion of many seriously compromised his dignity by travelling in such a riotous contrivance. The act, however, increased the popular admiration for his courage.

In 1842 the *Morning Post* says: "It is worthy of remark that her Majesty never travels by railway. Prince Albert almost invariably accompanies the Queen; but patronizes the Great Western generally when compelled to come up from Windsor alone. The Prince, however, has been known to say, 'Not quite so fast next time, Mr. Conductor, if you please.'" In June of that year, however the *Railway Times* records: "Her Majesty made her first railway trip on Monday last on the Great Western Railway, and we have no doubt will in future patronize the line as extensively as does her Royal Consort." The Queen must have found a railway journey not so bad as she had fancied, for a few days later

we read that she returned from London to Slough by the Great Western, "accompanied by His Royal Highness Prince Albert, their Serene Highnesses the Prince and Princess of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha, and a numerous suite."

In 1843 it is recorded that the Judges sent down as a Special Commission to try some rioters at Stafford journeyed thither by train. "It would appear, therefore," comments the *Railway Times*, "that travelling by railway is not now considered beneath the dignity of the profession."

Far-sighted as some of the first railway projectors were, none of them had foreseen the growth of travelling which the new invention was to produce. The railway companies adopted the policy of forcing people into the more expensive carriages. The "Parliamentary" trains carrying passengers for a penny a mile were made as uncomfortable as the saintliest hermit could desire. The third-class traveller was conveyed at unearthly hours in pens without springs, without roofs, or doors or windows, without seats, open at the sides to within a foot or two of the floor. So many fell out of these carriages while the trains were bumping along the rough track that legislation had to be invoked to compel the companies to build the sides of the pens higher. Third-class trains made about ten miles an hour. To an appeal for greater speed the reply was made that the passengers would be unable to endure the exposure at a higher rate of speed.

In 1842 the modern railway-ticket was introduced.

In 1856 the Grand Trunk Railway was opened from Quebec to Toronto.

In 1842, on all the railways of the United Kingdom, 18 million passengers were carried. Now the number carried annually exceeds a thousand millions. More than eight out of every nine of this vast multitude travel third-class. The third-class passengers are carried at a speed and with a comfort which first-class passengers could not command in the early days of railways, and they are carried at a fare never exceeding, frequently falling short of, one penny a mile.

Since Watt had demonstrated the value of steam for driving machinery, a number of inventors had been experimenting with the new power, in the hope of applying it to propelling vessels.

In 1787 William Patrick Miller patented paddle-wheels, and in the same year, with Mr. Symington, constructed a small steamboat which travelled about four miles an hour.

Twenty years later Robert Fulton, an American, built a steamboat and made

the voyage from New York to Albany in it. In 1812 a similar boat began to carry passengers on the Clyde.

In 1815 the first steam vessel was seen upon the Thames.

In 1818 the *Rising Sun*, a steamer built by Lord Cochrane, crossed the Atlantic. Next year the *Savannah*, an American sailing vessel partly aided by steam, made the voyage from New York to Liverpool in 26 days.

In 1894 an interesting ceremony was witnessed by the members of the Colonial Conference at Ottawa. The Canadian Parliament had ordered that a brass tablet should be placed in the wall of the corridor leading to the Library of Parliament, with a suitable inscription commemorating the departure of the *Royal William* from the port of Quebec, in 1833—the first vessel to cross the ocean wholly by means of steam.

The memorial was placed in its position by his Excellency the Governor-General in the presence of the delegates to the Conference, the Speakers of both Houses of the Dominion Parliament, the members of the Government and members of both Houses, by members of the Royal Society of Canada on behalf of the Canadian Institute, Toronto, the Literary and Historical Societies of Quebec and Halifax, and other associated societies, and by citizens of Ottawa generally.

The inscription on the memorial brass is as follows:

IN HONOR OF THE MEN
BY WHOSE ENTERPRISE, COURAGE AND SKILL

THE
"ROYAL WILLIAM"

The first vessel to cross the Atlantic by steam power was wholly constructed in Canada and navigated to England in 1833. The pioneer of those mighty fleets of ocean steamers by which passengers and merchandise of all nations are now conveyed on every sea throughout the world.

Ordered by the Parliament of Canada, June 13-15, 1894.

In 1837 Capt. Ericsson constructed the *Francis Bogden*, the first screw steamer. On the 4th of July, 1840, the first Cunard steamer, the *Britannia*, sailed for New York. The other great steamship lines were soon established.

Scientific men, of course, were opposed to the innovation. In 1819 Dr. Lardner proved that ocean steam navigation was impracticable. The book containing the learned doctor's demonstration was brought to America by the *Savannah* on her return voyage. In 1835 the President of the Board of Control declared in the House of Commons that the monsoon blew with so much violence in the Red Sea, that no steamer could be built large enough or strong enough to face it. In 1840 he had to acknowledge that steam on the Red Sea had shortened the journey to Bombay to 38 days. That 38 days' journey from London to Bombay has since been reduced to 14 days.

In 1840 the commercial navy of Great Britain consisted of about 23,000 vessels, with a capacity of less than three million tons. The steam fleet of that day comprised 770 vessels, with a capacity of 87,000 tons. In 1894 the commercial navy of the United Kingdom consisted of 21,000 vessels, with a capacity of nine million tons. The tonnage of the sailing vessels was three million tons; that of the steamers was six million tons. In the year 1896 Britain built a greater number of tons than her entire tonnage of 1837.

In 1837 British ships were built of wood; every vessel of any size is now made of iron or steel. In 1837 British ships were described as "the most unsightly in Europe, sailing badly, unmanageable in bad weather, and on a lee shore." To-day British ships are the finest in the world.

Increased facilities for travel have brought the various portions of the Empire into closer communication. Electricity has done still more to unite them into one homogeneous whole. When the Queen came to the throne, electricity was regarded as a toy, or at most the subject of interesting experiments in the laboratory of the chemist. No telegraph existed in the United Kingdom. The first telegraph line was set up in 1839. The first successful submarine cable was laid in 1851, from Dover to Calais. Duplex telegraphy, the transmission of two messages along a single wire, at the same time, in opposite directions, was first accomplished in 1853, and applied to British telegraphs in 1873. Quadruplex telegraphy, by which four messages, two from each end, may be transmitted upon one wire simultaneously, was successfully accomplished in 1877. Since the adoption of the multiplex system it is now possible to send six messages at once, three in each direction along the same wire.

In 1865 telegraphic communication between London and Bombay was opened. In 1866, after many failures, the Atlantic Cable was at last successfully laid.

Duke of Connaught.

Duke Alfred of Coburg.

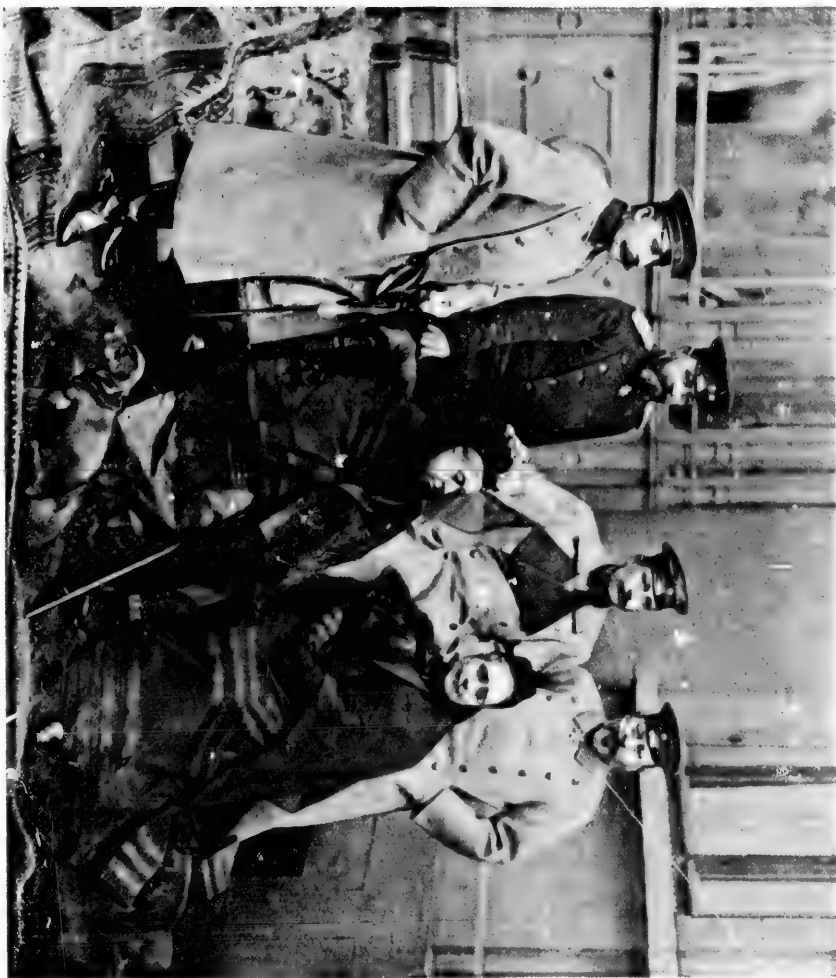
Emperor of Germany.

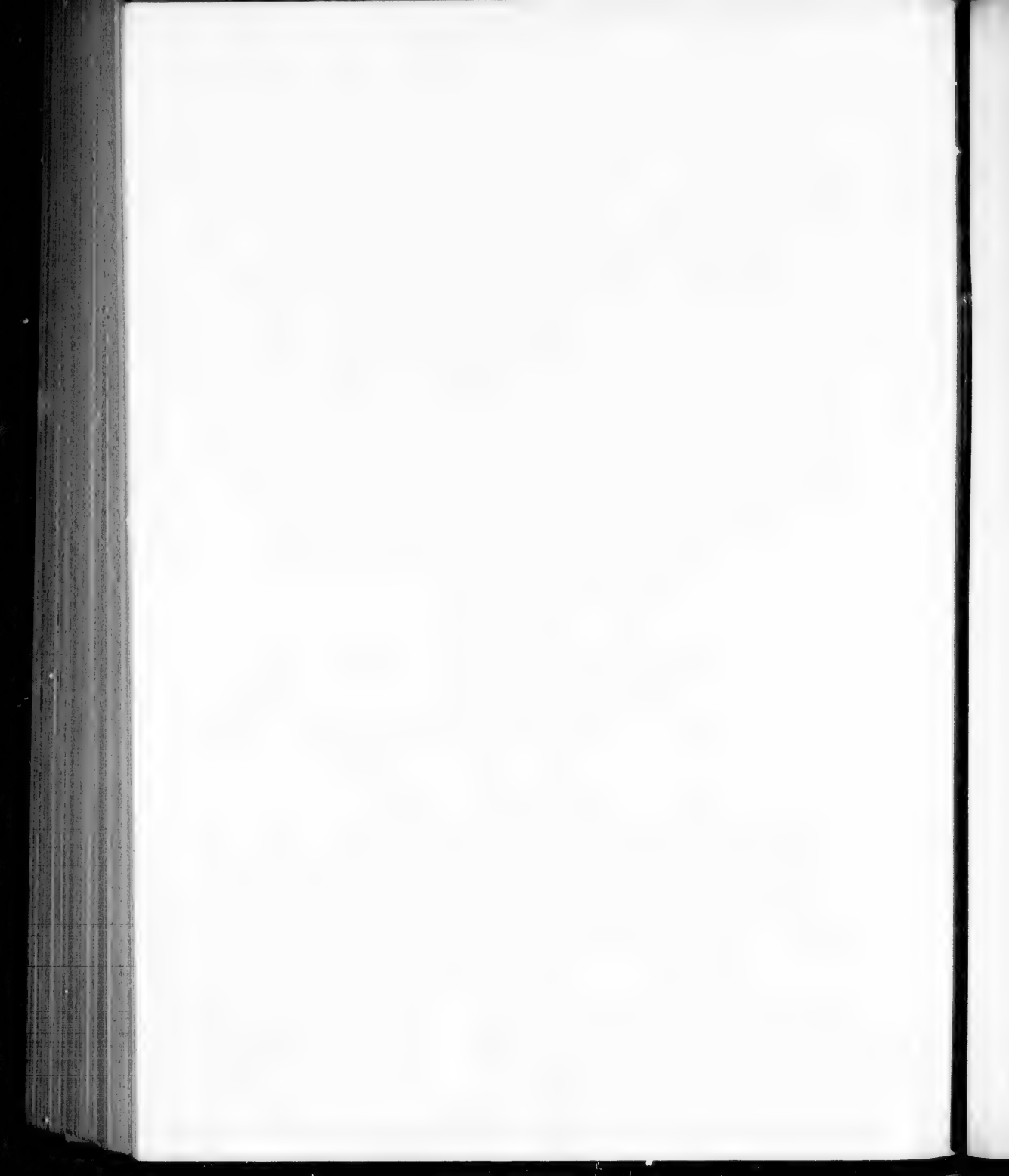
Prince of Wales.

Queen Victoria.

Empress Frederick.

A ROYAL GROUP.





Her Majesty sent the following message to the President of the United States :

" 28TH JULY, 1866.

" From the Queen, Osborne, to the President of the United States, Washington.

" The Queen congratulates the President on the successful completion of an undertaking which she hopes may serve as an additional bond of union between the United States and England."

On the first anniversary of Dominion Day telegraphic messages were exchanged between the Atlantic Cable Company and Lord Monck, Governor-General of Canada.

In Great Britain over seventy-one million telegraphic despatches are sent out annually. In Canada nearly five million are sent yearly. The Australian is a greater user of the telegraph than the Canadian ; with a population considerably less than ours, the Australians send nearly ten million despatches a year.

When the Queen came to the throne gas had been for some time in use in the great towns, in theatres and other places of amusement, and for lighting the streets. In the country towns, and in city churches, private houses and shops, candles still lingered—tallow candles, needing constant snuffing, dropping grease profusely, and spreading everywhere the fragrance of smouldering wicks.

In 1856, Professor Tyndal first employed an electric lamp for illustrating his lectures on light and color. Two years later, the Holmes Magneto-electric light was successfully tried at the South Foreland lighthouse, Dover. In 1878, Westminster Palace was lit by electricity. In 1891, after long trial of competing systems, permanent electric lights were installed by the city of London.

Up to 1837 the charge made for delivering a letter varied with the distance it was carried. In that year, Mr. Rowland Hill broached his plan of penny postage. Two years later his plan was adopted by Parliament, and a uniform rate of one penny per letter of half-an-ounce weight commenced. Adhesive stamps came into use in 1840. Postal cards were first issued to the public in 1870. In 1871, postage was reduced to one penny for each letter of one ounce weight. The uniform Colonial and India postage, five cents, long advocated by Mr. J. Hennicker Heaton, M.P., was adopted by the Government in 1890.

In 1839, eighty-two million letters, more than six million being franks, were conveyed by her Majesty's mails. In 1895, the number of postal despatches of all kinds had risen to 2,907 millions.

In the same year the Dominion post-office conveyed 163 million letters, postal cards and newspapers. The Australian post-office carried 402 million despatches of all kinds. The Australian makes more use of the post-office and telegraph than the Canadian, or any other colonist, more, indeed, than the citizen of the Mother Country.

Throughout the Empire the volume of trade has increased almost as rapidly as the volume of correspondence. British imports amounted in 1837 to \$335,000,000; in 1896 to \$2,080,000,000. Exports in 1837 were \$250,000,000; in 1896 \$1,425,000,000. British manufactures in 1837 amounted to \$750,000,000, in 1896 to \$4,750,000,000.

Canadian commerce amounted in 1840 to \$21,000,000; in 1895 to \$243,000,000. The revenue in 1840 was \$2,500,000; in 1895 it was \$36,500,000; and the larger sum was more easily paid than the smaller sum was sixty years ago.

During the past sixty years travellers and explorers have largely reduced the area of the unknown regions of the globe. Spitzbergen has become a fashionable summer-resort. Timbuctoo is readily accessible to tourists. The Alpine Club has shifted its quarters to the Himalayas. Much, however, remains to be explored. Large portions of the interior of Africa still await the coming of the white man. Only a narrow fringe of the Australian coast-line is yet thoroughly examined. The islands of Borneo and New Guinea are imperfectly known. Much of Patagonia remains a sealed book. It is in the Arctic Circle and in the interior of Africa that the greatest successes have been achieved.

So long ago as the year 1585, a Company was formed in London, called "The Fellowship for the discovery of the North-West Passage." From 1743 to 1818 Parliament offered a reward of \$100,000 for this discovery. In 1818 the reward was modified by the proposition that \$25,000 should be paid when either 110°, 120° or 130° west longitude should be passed. One of these payments was made to Sir E. Parry.

In 1845, Sir John Franklin, with Captains Crozier and Fitzjames, in the ships *Erebus* and *Terror*, left England on that voyage of discovery from which they were fated never to return. On the monument to their memory is inscribed: "To Franklin and his brave companions, who sacrificed their lives in completing the discovery of the North-West Passage, A.D. 1847-48."

Another North-West Passage was discovered by Capt. McClure in 1850.

In 1871, Mr. B. Leigh Smith sailed to latitude 81° 24'. In the following year he discovered undercurrents of warm water flowing into the polar basin.

In 1874 a new British expedition was fitted out, \$200,000 being voted by Parliament for the purpose. Captain Nares in command of the *Alert*, and Captain Stevenson in command of the *Discovery*, sailed from Portsmouth in May, 1875, returning in safety to England in November, 1876. The ships wintered in latitude $82^{\circ} 87'$. The expedition reached in sledges latitude $83^{\circ} 20' 26''$. The greatest cold experienced was 72° below zero.

In 1879, the north-east passage was successfully accomplished by an expedition under Prof. Nordenskjöld, in the *Vega*.

In 1896, after an absence of three years, Dr. Nansen's expedition returned in safety. Though Nansen did not reach the Pole, he got 170 miles nearer to it than any of his predecessors. He made no discoveries of land, but the ocean area beyond the 80th parallel proved by him to be without land, or even islands, is more extensive than the area of land and water combined, revealed to us by all former expeditions combined. The *Fram* stood out to sea from Vardo on July 21, 1893. Sailing along the coast of Siberia, a few small islands were discovered. On September 15th, the expedition was off Olenek river, where 26 sledge-dogs awaited the explorer, but owing to the lateness of the season Nansen thought it best to make at once for the north in search of that return current which was to carry him across the Pole towards the eastern coast of Greenland. On September 22nd he was shut in by ice. For nearly eighteen months the vessel drifted at the mercy of the currents, at first towards the north-east, and then, to Nansen's relief, towards the north-west.

On March 14th, 1895, when the *Fram* was in lat. $83^{\circ} 59'$, Nansen conceived the bold plan of leaving the ship and travelling with his dog-sleds across the ice towards the Pole. The *Fram*, in charge of Capt. Sverdrup, still shut in by ice, was left to drift with the current, which safely carried her far to the north ($85^{\circ} 57'$) past Franz Josef Land and Spitzbergen, into open water ($83^{\circ} 14' N.$, $14^{\circ} E.$), and she arrived at Hammerfest Aug. 21st, 1896. Nansen took with him only one companion, Lieut. Johannsen. After 25 days' labor these two reached $86^{\circ} 14' N.$, $95^{\circ} E.$, when they found that the whole ice-pack was slowly drifting to the south, their daily progress thus hardly being more than four miles. They turned back, reached Franz Josef Land on August 27th, and wintered in $81^{\circ} 13' N.$ In the spring they started with the intention of making their way over the ice to Spitzbergen, but passing near Mr. Jackson's winter quarters, they were discovered and taken home in the *Windward*.

Nansen proved the existence of a Polar current. Moreover, he finally exploded one of the favorite delusions of Arctic authorities: they believed that the Arctic Ocean is very shallow, and extremely cold throughout. Nansen's soundings showed a depth everywhere ranging from 10,000 to 13,000 feet, and a temperature much warmer than was expected.

The depth of the Polar Sea has an important bearing on the exact shape of the earth. Our globe is usually regarded as a sphere flattened at both poles. Dr. Nansen's discoveries prove that the flattening is much more marked at the North Pole than at the South Pole; so that the whole globe is slightly pear-shaped.

Four years after the Queen's accession, the great Niger Expedition (for which Parliament voted \$300,000) set out to found a colony in Central Africa. Little or nothing was accomplished. The enterprise was relinquished owing to disease, heat and hardship.

In 1845-6 James Richardson explored the Great Sahara. In 1851 he died, while travelling in Central Africa under the direction of the Foreign Office.

In 1857 Dr. Livingstone published the story of his travels, covering a period of 16 years, and extending over thousands of miles of territory hitherto unknown.

In 1863, Captains Speke and Grant discovered one of the sources of the Nile, in Lake Victoria Nyanza. Next year Sir Samuel Baker discovered Lake Albert Nyanza, supposed to be another of the sources of the Nile.

In 1866 Dr. Livingstone published the narrative of his Zambesi expedition. In the same year he set out to continue his search for the sources of the Nile.

In 1867, reports of his having been murdered reaching England, an expedition under E. D. Young was equipped to ascertain the facts. In the meantime, letters arrived from Livingstone, dated March and December, 1867, July, 1868, and May, 1869, disproving the reports.

Then for three years nothing was heard of him. In 1872 the Royal Geographical Society sent out an expedition in search of him. In the meantime, however, Mr. H. M. Stanley, in command of the New York *Herald* expedition, had been fortunate enough to fall in with him at Ujiji, near Unyanembe, in November, 1871.

Stanley remained with the illustrious traveller till March, 1872, when he brought away his diary and other documents. In 1872 a letter from Dr. Livingstone appeared, describing his explorations, his painful journey to Ujiji to meet

Stanley; his exploration of 600 of the 700 miles of watershed in Central Africa; the convergence of the watershed first into four and then into two mighty rivers in the great Nile Valley.

In May, 1873, the great traveller and Christian missionary died of dysentery, at Ilala. There his heart was interred beneath the shadow of a mighty tree, on whose stem a suitable inscription was carved. His bones were laid in Westminster Abbey, with all the marks of honor that a sorrowing nation could exhibit.

After leaving Livingstone, Stanley surveyed Lakes Victoria Nyanza, and Tanganyika, and crossed the continent from east to west.

In 1879-80 he returned to Africa with an international Belgian expedition, explored the Congo, and established a trade route with four stations.

Since then the facilities for travel have increased so enormously that the ordinary holiday-maker can now visit districts far in the interior, the discovery of which has made the fame of an explorer. A journey across the continent has ceased to be an event. During 1896 three expeditions setting out from Zanzibar or the lower Zambesi have arrived at the mouth of the Congo.

In 1896 the Niger was for the first time descended from Timbuctoo to its mouth, by French explorers; the country to the north of the Zambesi has been visited; our knowledge of Nyassaland and of British Central Africa has been extended, and recent military expeditions have made us more familiar with Uganda and Unyoro. Northern Somaliland is annually attracting a number of sportsmen and others, whose work is steadily increasing our geographical knowledge of that region. During the last sixty years Africa has surrendered most of her great secrets so jealously guarded for ages.

In Canada the North-West territories still offer an enticing field to the explorer. Almost unknown are the resources of the vast region extending from the Saskatchewan to the Arctic Ocean, embracing an area of more than a million square miles. Within this region, in addition to numberless lakes, there are nearly three thousand miles of navigable rivers. More than three hundred thousand square miles are suitable for wheat growing. A million square miles afford excellent pasturage. The mineral wealth is very varied—gold, silver, iron, copper, coal, petroleum, salt and all kinds of earthy minerals abound.

Intimately connected with the development of these vast resources is the navigability of Hudson's Bay. This route, if practicable, will be the shortest and, in time of war, the safest outlet for the yearly increasing food products of

the North-West. It may be that the great problem of feeding Great Britain both in peace and war will yet be solved by the Dominion of Canada.

The Armenian atrocities have already been referred to. The attention of Europe has recently been diverted from Armenia to another portion of the Ottoman Empire—the Island of Crete. There an insurrection against Turkish mis-rule broke out. Bloodshed, incendiarism and outrage—the trinity of hell—reigned for a time supreme. Greece sent a military force to support the Christians against the Mohammedans. The Great Powers intervened in the interest of European peace. The outcome will probably be autonomy for Crete under some governor approved by the Powers, furnished with sufficient force to keep the peace between the warring factions on the Island.



SULTAN ABDUL HAMID II.

CHAPTER XIX.

The Victorian Era—Continued.

Science, Literature and Art—Lord Kelvin—The Origin of Species—Carlyle—Macaulay—Tennyson
—Browning—Art and Artists.



THE Victorian Era has been an intensely practical era. Its inventors and engineers have triumphantly harnessed the forces of Nature to the products of their brains and hands, compelling the rising tides and the leaping cataracts to turn the wheels of industry. The Victorian students of Nature have solved problems hitherto pronounced insoluble. Sixty years ago who would have deemed it within the limits of possibility to weigh the fixed stars and to analyze the composition of the sun? These are but two of the astounding feats accomplished during Victoria's reign. In the progress of science the present age has no equal. Solid and lasting fame has been won by Darwin, Lyell, Bunsen, Tyndal, Huxley and Wallace.

But since Sir Isaac Newton no man has done so much, so well, in so many directions, for the advance of scientific knowledge as William Thomson, Lord Kelvin.

Thomson was born in Belfast in 1824. At the age of ten he entered the University of Glasgow, where his father held the professorship of Mathematics. When seventeen years old he went up to Cambridge. There he graduated, was elected Fellow of his College, and shortly afterwards Professor of Natural Philosophy in Glasgow University. Even as an undergraduate he had published original and valuable contributions to mathematical and physical science. He possessed in a high degree the rare faculty of employing mathematical facts and figures as a means of solving the most intricate problems of natural science.

In 1854 he established his now well-known and important law of retardation, "the law of squares." This means that if a signal in a certain submarine cable occupies, say, one second in transmission, the signal in a similar cable two or three times longer will take not two or three seconds, but those numbers multiplied by themselves, ($2 \times 2 = 4$) and ($3 \times 3 = 9$) or, as is said, the squares of those numbers, four seconds or nine seconds.

The Atlantic Cable was at this time being projected; the law of retardation interposed an insurmountable obstacle to its proving a commercial success. Thomson, however, not only devised a method of overcoming the retardation, he actually made it subservient to his purpose. This was effected by a very sensitive instrument, known as the mirror galvanometer. Twenty years later he invented a still more delicate instrument named the siphon recorder, now in use for recording cable messages all the world over.

While still a student at Cambridge, Lord Kelvin had formed definite opinions relating to the age of the earth, and the condition of its interior. From time to time during the last fifty years he has published the results of his investigations on this subject. The unrivalled combination in him of mathematical skill, insight into physical facts and laws, and the power of educing further information from well planned and carefully executed laboratory experiments, has enabled him to arrive at the conclusion, now universally adopted, that the earth is not a mere shell with a fluid interior, but is on the whole or in great part solid.

Lord Kelvin has also demonstrated the erroneousness of the "doctrine of uniformity" held by geologists and biologists thirty years ago. He has brought down the age of the earth, or geological time, from the illimitable periods of earlier teachers, to a period of between twenty and one hundred millions of years.

His investigations into the sources of the sun's heat have established the theory that it originated in the coalition of small bodies to form the present mass. With regard to the question of the diminution of the sun's heat, Lord Kelvin has come to the comforting conclusion that the sun will be able to give light and heat under the present conditions for the next ten million years.

The late Sir William Siemens and Lord Kelvin were the first to suggest the conversion of the enormous forces of Niagara Falls into electric energy. The method adopted, and now in successful use, is Lord Kelvin's.

The subject of "the origin of life" on the earth has been much discussed in recent years. Darwin, Huxley and Wallace favored the view of the "origin of species by natural selection." To this Lord Kelvin opposed the argument from "design." Tracing the physical history of the earth backwards, he brings us to a red-hot melted globe on which no life could exist; hence, when the earth was first fit for life, there was no living thing on it. Reasoning from observed facts of lava streams cooling and solidifying, and of volcanic islands rising from the sea, and yet both in a few years found teeming with vegetable and animal life

whose beginnings must be accounted for by the transportation thither of the necessary seed and ova by the agency of the wind or the migration of living creatures, he advances the hypothesis that vegetable life originated on the earth through the arrival of "moss-grown fragments from the ruin of another world"; for we know that every year many thousands of fragments of solid substances fall upon the earth from space. He holds firmly to the belief that through all space and through all time "life proceeds from life and from nothing but life."

At the meeting of the British Association at Oxford, three years ago, the Marquis of Salisbury brought his presidential address to a close with a quotation from the concluding sentences of Lord Kelvin's address from the same chair in 1871: "I have always felt that the hypothesis of 'natural selection' does not contain the true theory of evolution, if evolution there has been in biology. I feel profoundly convinced that the argument of design has been greatly too much lost sight of in recent speculations. Overpoweringly strong proofs of intelligent and benevolent design lie around us, and if ever perplexities, whether metaphysical or scientific, turn us away from them for a time, they come back upon us with irresistible force, showing to us, through nature, the influence of a free-will, and teaching us that all living things depend on one Almighty Creator and Ruler."

Men of science have claimed the Victorian Era for their own. Yet neither literature nor art will allow themselves to be ignored as potent factors in the achievements of the last sixty years.

Literature under Queen Victoria recovered the Elizabethan magic and passion, the Elizabethan music of language, and a more than Elizabethan sense of the beauty and complexity of nature.

When the Queen came to the throne, Sir Walter Scott, the restorer of loyalty to the past, was not long dead; Southey, the voluminous, had ceased at last to write; Wordsworth, Poet Laureate, was to linger a few years longer, and

Pipe a simple song for thinking hearts.

Campbell, best known and best remembered for his short lyrics glowing with passionate and fiery eloquence, was still enjoying his modest pension. Thomas Moore, Ireland's one great poet, had sung the last of his "Irish Melodies," and had lapsed into silence awaiting the end. Walter Savage Landor was still holding "Imaginary Conversations" with the departed great. De Quincey was dis-

cussing philosophy, poetry, classics, history, politics—everything, with majestic rhythm and elaborate eloquence.

It was in 1837 that Thomas Carlyle's "French Revolution" appeared. Here then is the first great name of the distinctively Victorian age of literature. His first original work "Sartor Resartus," ("The Tailor Repatched") appeared in 1834. Many have found it fruitful in suggestiveness. In 1845 his "Cromwell's Letters and Speeches" was published. In 1865 he completed his "History of Frederick the Great." He died in London February 5th., 1881.

Egoistic as Carlyle may have been as a man and a husband, as an artist he was impeccable. He yielded neither to the temptations of gold nor of shoddy-work. His energy was herculean, his labor supremely conscientious; his perseverance equalled his genius. No modern writer possesses such a wealth of figurative language. His works are full of the pithiest and most memorable sayings. "Genius is an immense capacity for taking pains." "Do the duty which lies nearest thee! Thy second duty will already have become clearer." "To the blind all things are sudden." "Whoever is not a hammer must be an anvil." "The beggarliest truth is better than the royalest lie." "Wisdom is folly which is wise only behind-hand." "Democracy is government by blindman's-buff."

It was his essay on Milton, written for the Edinburgh Review in 1825, that brought into notice Thomas Babington Macaulay. In 1842 appeared his "Lays of Ancient Rome," not to detect the "pinchbeck" in which, is—according to Matthew Arnold—the sign of a grovelling nature. His greatest work is his "History of England from the Accession of James II." In 1857 he was raised to the peerage with the title of Baron Macaulay of Rothley—the first literary man ever called to the House of Lords. He died in 1859. Emerson's impression of him is worth recalling: "Macaulay is the King of diners out. I do not know where I have seen such wonderful vivacity. He has the strength of ten men, immense memory, fun, fire, learning, politics, manners and pride, and talks all the time in a steady torrent." Sydney Smith called him "a book in breeches." Macaulay is an advocate rather than a historian, but he is eminently readable. His love of antithesis often betrays him into exaggeration. When he argues—and when does he not?—it is for victory rather than for truth.

When Wordsworth died, in 1850, Alfred Tennyson was appointed Poet-Laureate. Tennyson was born at Somersby, in Lincolnshire, in the year 1809. In 1829 he won the Chancellor's medal for English verse at the University of Cam-

bridge. In 1830 he published his first volume "Poems, chiefly Lyrical." "The Princess" appeared in 1847; "In Memoriam" in 1850; "Maud" in 1855; "Idylls of the King" in 1859-73. Tennyson is also the author of several dramas. In 1882 he was created Baron Tennyson, and called to the House of Lords. He died in 1892.

Writing in 1848 Emerson says: "I saw Tennyson first at the house of Coventry Patmore, where we dined together. I was contented with him at once. He is tall and scholastic-looking, no dandy, but a great deal of plain strength about him, and, though cultivated, quite unaffected. Quiet, sluggish strength and thought; refined, as all English are, and good-humored. There is in him an air of general superiority that is very satisfactory. . . . Carlyle thinks him the best man in England to smoke a pipe with, and used to see him much; had a place in his little garden, on the wall, where Tennyson's pipe is laid up."

Thackeray said of him "He is the wisest man I know." Froude says: "The best and bravest of my own contemporaries determined to have done with insincerity, to find ground under their feet, to let the uncertain remain uncertain, but to learn how much and what we could honestly regard as true, and believe and live by it. Tennyson became the voice of this feeling in poetry; Carlyle in what is called prose."

In the union of art and nature, in the creation of an all-pervading, all-absorbing atmosphere, Tennyson yields to none. Milton excepted, we have had no other so emphatically a master of the music of words—words rich in meaning—since Shakespeare. The music and the meaning in his lines are more than interwoven, they are interfused; and so perfect is the fusion that at the least touch of an altering hand the play of iridescent evanescences is over, the charm has vanished.

Tennyson is distinctively the poet of the English race, as Moore is of the Irish, as Burns is of the Scottish. Byron misrepresented British emotion and sentiment; he charmed Europe with incorrect ideas of British feeling. His hot-house romanticism is more Italian or French than Saxon. Tennyson represents the slow, deep feeling of his race, its sorrows and its joys. No French poet could have written "In Memoriam." The sorrow it expresses is fundamentally British. It is not the grief which cries for a time, then wipes its eyes and forgets, but the sorrow that, like a river in its course, only deepens its channel in the passing years. There is passion in Tennyson, but passion dominated by common sense. In no way could a foreigner get to understand the spirit of the British people better than by making a close study of Tennyson's poems.

Robert Browning was born in London in the year 1812. His earliest poem, "Pauline," was published in 1833; his latest, "Dramatic Romances," in 1888. He died December 12, 1889. Too much stress has been laid upon certain obscurities in the style of Browning. A few unwise worshippers at the shrine of this great poet have gone to the other extreme, asserting that his volumes will teach religion better than all the theologies in the world, brazenly proposing that Browning shall supersede the Bible. "Browning," says one who knew him well, "was an unostentatious, keen, active man of the world, one who never failed to give good, practical advice in matters of business and conduct, one who loved his friends, but certainly hated his enemies; a man alive in every eager, passionate nerve of him; a man who loved to discuss people and affairs, and a bit of a gossip, a bit of a partisan, too, and not without his humorous prejudices. He was simple to a high degree, simple in his scrupulous dress, his loud, happy voice, his insatiable curiosity."

It was not his poetry as poetry, not his intellectual vigor, his dramatic power, his learning, by which he took strongest hold. It was the spirit of Browning, his wholesomeness, his completeness of ideal, his prophetic view of things, his energizing touch, which drew to him so large a company of devoted admirers. The wisest of these followers were willing to acknowledge that frequently they could not understand him, that too often he wrote what seemed sheer folly. They confessed his metre defective, his choice of subjects intolerable, his use of his vast knowledge barbaric; but they found in him a great teacher, a deep and tender human spirit, which saw farther than they. Browning never had the blues. According to his theory the world is not for despair, time is to be used, joy is to be tasted, hope is to be indulged, sorrow is to be met with manliness, all things are to work together for good. Always with him,

God's in His heaven—
All's right with the world.

Comparing these two great poets, we find that Tennyson represents the realistic aspect, Browning the ideal. To some the faith that battles with doubts and triumphs may seem the noblest. To others, the faith that dwells in serene peace may seem the most exalted.

Why need we seek to give one or the other such a pre-eminence? Each had his special work and each performed it nobly. Together they presented the

higher life in its fulness. Together they did that which no singer could have accomplished. It says much for the vitality of the national creed that the only two poets of our time worth serious consideration should not only have regarded it with a reverence so profound and scrupulous, but should have labored so anxiously to uphold it, to illustrate and interpret its truth, its beauty and its efficacy.

Swinburne, Rosetti, Marston, have widened the bounds of song. They have created new music in English verse. They have enlarged the instrument of expression. In ethical tendency their works are unsatisfactory.

William Makepeace Thackeray was born in Calcutta, in the year 1811. The son of a gentleman high in the service of the East India Company, he was sent to England to be educated. Painting was the profession he at first chose; and he studied art both in France and Germany. At the age of twenty-nine he took to literary work. Under the name of Michael Angelo Titmarsh he contributed many pleasant articles to "Fraser's Magazine." "Vanity Fair," his first serial novel, was published in 1847. Perhaps his greatest work is the "History of Henry Esmond"—a work written in the style and language of the days of Queen Anne. He died in the year 1863.

Charlotte Bronte admirably sums up Thackeray's qualities as a writer: "The more I read Thackeray's works the more certain I am that he stands alone—alone in his sagacity, alone in his truth, alone in his feeling (his feeling, though he makes no noise about it, is the most genuine that ever lived in printed page), alone in his power, alone in his simplicity, alone in his self-control. Thackeray is a Titan so strong that he can afford to perform with calm the most herculean feats. There is the charm of majesty and repose in his greatest efforts. He borrows nothing from fever, his is never the energy of delirium, his energy is strong energy, thoughtful energy. The last number of 'Vanity Fair' proves this peculiarly. Forcefully exciting in its force, still more impressive than exciting, carrying on the interest of the narrative in a flow deep, full, it is still quiet—as quiet as reflection, as quiet as memory, and to me there are parts of it that sound as solemn as an oracle. Thackeray is never borne away by his own ardor, and he has it under control, his genius obeys him, it is his servant, it works in fantastic changes at his will. Thackeray is unique. I can say no more—I will say no less."

Charles Dickens was born at Portsmouth, in the year 1812. At the only school

he attended "the boys trained white mice better than the master trained the boys." His real education consisted in his eager perusal of miscellaneous literature. The profession of reporter took his fancy; by the time he was nineteen he had made himself the quickest and most accurate reporter in the gallery of the House of Commons. His first work, "Sketches by Boz," was published in 1836. In 1837, appeared the "Pickwick Papers;" in 1838, "Oliver Twist" and "Nicholas Nickleby." His last work, "The Mystery of Edwin Drood," was left unfinished. He died in the year 1870, and was buried in Westminster Abbey.

"Pickwick Papers" at once lifted Dickens to the foremost place in popular favor. Carlyle wrote in a letter to a friend: "An archdeacon, with his own venerable lips, repeated to me the other night a strange, profane story of a solemn clergyman who had been administering ghostly consolation to a sick person. Having finished satisfactorily, as he thought, and got out of the room, he heard the sick person ejaculate: 'Well, thank God! "Pickwick" will be out in ten days, any way!' This is dreadful!"

As proof of the popularity of "Pickwick," the fact may be recorded that the binder prepared 400 copies of Part I.; of Part XV. his order was for more than 40,000.

Daniel Webster said of him: "Dickens has done more to better the condition of the English poor than all the statesmen Great Britain has ever sent to the English Parliament."

The lesser poets, novelists, historians, and philosophical and political writers must be passed by unnoticed, even unnamed. There is one name, however, which cannot be overlooked—the name of Rudyard Kipling—not because he has the least claim to rival the great authors of the Victorian age, but because he is the Laureate of Greater Britain. The society of "Imperial Federation" comprises a number of august personages. It may be doubted whether it has accomplished anything like so much for its purpose as the poems of Rudyard Kipling. He began to labor at it long ago in "The Widow at Windsor," in the Atkins dialect. He made a more express contribution to it in "The English Flag." In his latest volume, "The Seven Seas," he returns to the subject again and again.

In the lives of most British men and women Art is not an essential. It does not appeal to the people of Great Britain as a whole. The national spirit not

being in sympathy with it, the Victorian age has not produced an Art corresponding to its marvellous advance in science, in culture, in civilization. Yet, this period has not been wanting in painters of genius.

During the early years of the Queen's reign, painting, it must be confessed, sank to a low ebb. Constable had died in 1837, and although Turner lived till 1851, his best work was done. Most of the other painters who stood high in public opinion, Etty and Stanfield, Mulready and Leslie, belonged to the "old school;" were survivals from the Georgian age. Their ideals were those of another day. With the exception of Stanfield, whose "Tilbury Fort" was exhibited in 1844, they had already painted the pictures which made their reputation, and were content with repeating former conceptions with more or less variety. Such artists as Maclise, Cope and Ward, who lived until comparatively recent years, served but to prolong the old style of historical genre painting in a feeble manner. Except in one or two rare instances they did not rise above mediocrity. A far more gifted master, William Dyce, was forced to give up his profession for years for want of patronage, and when at length he found a fair field for his powers in the frescoes of Westminster Palace, it was too late in the day for him to obtain the high place his genius might have won.

In this stagnant condition of art the one branch of painting which flourished was water color. In the first years of Queen Victoria's reign this peculiarly British form of art reached high excellence.

Wonderful, indeed, is the skill and the variety displayed in the Eastern scenes of John Lewis and William Miller; in the ruined abbeys and the cathedral portals of Prout and Roberts; in the ripening harvest-fields and the gorgeous sunsets of Palmer, and of Linnell; in the Arcadian landscapes of Barret and of De Wint; in the breezy downs of Copley and Fielding; and in the fruit and flower-pieces of William Hunt. Finer still in color and in poetic charm are the drawings of Turner. Finest of all are the landscapes of David Cox. No finer art than that of Cox at his best exists. No one has painted with greater faithfulness the fleeting effects of British weather, the special beauty of British scenery, the showery skies and windy hillsides, the green meadows and hedgerows, the yellow cornfields and the far blue plains.

While so much poetic feeling was to be found among water-color artists, a more and more prosaic spirit seemed to pervade the art of oil painting. Conventionality lacquered over with a thin gloss of sentiment passed for genius.

Thus, Frith made his reputation by his "Derby Day" and his "Railway Station." The one artist who stood higher than Frith in popular estimation was Landseer, who, in 1850, was knighted by the Queen. In spite of his many defects as an artist his popularity is still great. Probably the chief secret of his success is his clever trick of giving animals a human expression, a look of intelligence which does not belong to them.

In the year 1849 a new movement was set on foot, the most important that has ever taken place in British art. It was the Pre-Raphaelite revolt. Three young artists, Holman Hunt, Millais, and Dante Rosetti, the master spirit of the little band, fired with enthusiasm for the art of the old Italians, bound themselves to work together in the same humble and patient spirit, and with the same patient zeal for truth, the same firm faith in the lofty mission of Art. Since the name of Raphael was made to cover all conventional modern art, they called themselves the Pre-Raphaelite Brotherhood, and signed the letters P. R. B. on their pictures as the mark of their union. Four other young men afterwards joined them. Two, F. G. Stephens and James Collinson, were painters; one, Thomas Woolner, was a sculptor and poet; the fourth was Dante Rosetti's brother, William Michael Rosetti, the distinguished writer and critic, who began his career by expounding the principles and defending the practice of the new school. Others who sympathized in the movement, such as William Bell Scott and Ford Madox Brown, have been spoken of as Pre-Raphaelites, but were never members of the brotherhood, which remained limited to the original seven.

What was the aim of the Pre-Raphaelites when they set themselves to reform British Art? They were animated by two ideas: a hatred of forms, appearances and pretences, and a noble, passionate love of truth. "Truth," to quote Ruskin, the prophet of the movement,—*"Truth is the vital power of the whole school; Truth is its armor, Truth its war-word."* Naturally their doctrine was received with indignation; their work was denounced as atrocious; they themselves were brought to the verge of ruin and starvation. The tale of that fight for art has been often told, and a sorrowful record it is of the way in which Britain, for all her civilization, has treated her greatest artists.

Time has justified the sincerity of their aim and the excellence of their work; their pictures sell to day for as many dollars as they asked cents, and the papers which were loudest in their denunciation pour out rhapsodies in their praise. Recent years have seen a new development of Pre-Raphaelism with Burne-

Jones at its head. He has reaped the fruits of his predecessors' labors, and entered upon the inheritance won by their struggles. Great in poetic conception and in the power of giving reality to his dreams, his art is the higher development of the Pre-Raphaelite school, the perfect flower which has blossomed to the parent stem.

In his own sphere Burne-Jones stands alone, but of those who follow in his steps and drink inspiration at the same fountain are Walter Crane, Spencer Stanhope and Frederick Shields.

We can but name Watts, Mason and Walker, before we pass on to glance at some of those artists who, without belonging to any particular school or line of thought, have helped to adorn the Victorian age. Foremost among these is the late Lord Leighton, sometime President of the Royal Academy. For that post no man was ever better fitted, whether by his accomplishments as painter, sculptor, orator and scholar, or by his ready and generous recognition of merit in others. His youth was spent almost entirely abroad; it was to foreign training that Leighton owed his masterly draughtsmanship and thorough knowledge of the human frame. Every work of his is marked by the same accurate rendering of form, the same truly artistic spirit. While his pictures are remarkable for variety of subject and diversity of treatment, in later years he took an increasing delight in Hellenic themes, and in all that belongs to classic fable and Greek literature. His "Daphnephoria" is a grand specimen of decorative art; his frescoes of "The Arts of Peace and War," and of "The Ten Virgins," deserve mention as the finest mural paintings of the day. But his "Dead Alceste," lying white-robed, with the weeping maidens about her, and her pure profile against the dark blue waves, while Hercules wrestles with the mighty giant Death, is to our mind his greatest work.

Next to Leighton, Alma Tadema is conspicuous for his technical skill, for his unrivalled painting of texture, and for the extraordinary manner in which he has reproduced the life of the Roman Empire in its minutest details. Sir E. Poynter, President (1897) of the Royal Academy, and Mr. W. B. Richmond excel in technical power and in their treatment of classical subjects; while Mr. Orchardson has rivalled M. Tadema's skill in reproducing a particular period, and has attained popularity by his skilful representation of eighteenth-century *salons*. Among other popular painters, we may name Edwin Long, G. D. Leslie and H. S. Marks, whose genuine love of beasts and birds finds expression in humorous forms.

A striking feature of recent art has been the movement towards French ideals. This is to be ascribed partly to the influx of French artists during the Franco-German War, partly to many British students seeking in Parisian studios the training they cannot obtain at home, and partly the influence of Mr. Whistler, whose art is certainly unique in its way. This tendency—a steadily increasing one—is by no means the happiest feature of contemporary painting.

If we turn to landscape art many well-known names occur to us, though there are none to rival the illustrious water-color masters of the early Victorian age. Lawson, Hunt, Parsons, North, Mrs. Allingham, Thorne, Waite, Hine, Collier, Leader, Vicat Cole among the English, and the Scottish school of landscape painters with Graham and McWhirter at their head, have attained varying degrees of skill and different measures of success.

Two separate developments of contemporary art in recent years are the school of battle-painters, which owes its origin to the success of Miss Thompson's *Roll Call*, in 1876, and that of the sea-painters which dates further back, but has lately achieved remarkable triumphs.

Yet more important is the development of portrait painting during the last thirty years; a change the more remarkable if we look back to the beginning of the Queen's reign. Then, portrait painting was a merely decorative thing. People were satisfied with a tolerably fair likeness in the face of the sitter. They asked for nothing more. Now our best portrait painters aim at nothing short of a complete representation of the sitter's personality, his inner as well as his outer characteristics. Here Millais, Richmond, Herkomer, Holl and Oulless stand at the head of their craft, though all in turn must yield the palm to Watts, whose finest portraits have never been surpassed in insight, fidelity and beauty.

In the art of decoration a new departure has been taken by Aubrey Beardsley. Seeking though he does for the most part the repulsive and the hideous, he can now and then turn out some conceit of dainty conception and bold execution. His work is exerting widespread influence.

We have now taken a rapid glance over the last 60 years of British Art. During these years a vast change has been produced in the popular estimation of Art, a wide revival of interest and zeal in its pursuit, and a great advance in technical excellence on the part of British painters. Yet, on the whole, it is impossible to say that the development of the art of the Victorian age has been equal to the immense progress made in other fields of knowledge during this memorable period.

CHAPTER XX.

The Victorian Era—Continued.

A Final Survey—The Four Survivors—Canada and the Hereditary Monarchy—The Queen as an Imperialist—The Source of the Imperialists' Passion.



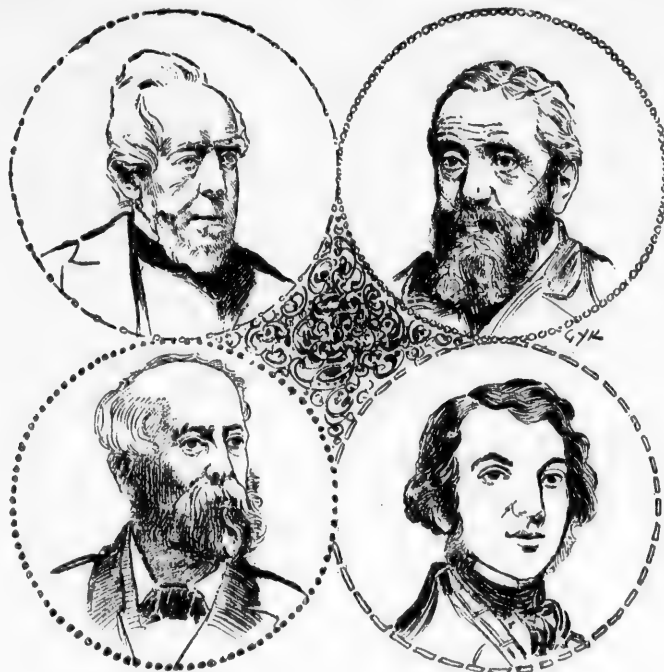
ON September 23, 1896, Queen Victoria, as we have already noted, had reigned longer than any other British sovereign, and longer than any European prince except Louis XIV. of France, who was king for seventy-two years, but who remained under tutelage for a long period after his accession to the throne. Queen Victoria has outlived all the members of the Privy Council who were alive in 1837; all the peers who held their titles in 1837 except two; all the members of the Commons who sat in the House on her accession except six; all those who took part in the ceremony of her coronation except four.

They are the Earl Nelson, who, as a 13-year old peer donned his silver coronet for the only time in his life at the moment when the Archbishop of Canterbury solemnly placed the crown of Great Britain upon the head of the Queen; the patriarchal Earl of Leicester, who acted on that occasion as page of honor and trainbearer to the Sovereign's uncle, the old Duke of Sussex; Mr. Gladstone, now in his 88th year, and Mr. Villiers, "the father of the House," who, at the age of 95, still takes part in the deliberations of Parliament.

Both Mr. Gladstone and Mr. Villiers witnessed the Queen's coronation from that portion of Westminster Abbey reserved for the accommodation of the members of the first Parliament of the present reign.

During her time there have been eleven Lord Chancellors; ten Prime Ministers; six Speakers of the Commons; at least three Bishops of every see, and five or six of many sees; six Archbishops of Canterbury, and six of York, and five Commanders-in-Chief. She has seen eighteen Presidents of the United States, ten Viceroy of Canada, and fifteen Viceroy of India. During her time France has been ruled by one King, one Emperor, and six Presidents. Four Kings have occupied the throne of Prussia during her reign, and four Emperors have ruled in Russia. Navies have been built where none were before, and the position of Great Britain as Mistress of the Seas is enviously disputed.

Among all the changes since 1837 none is more remarkable than the change in the sentiments of the British people towards the throne and the person of the Sovereign. At the Queen's accession there was among the people no loyalty whatever. Attachment to the Sovereign, personal devotion to the young Queen, rallying round the throne—these things were not even phrases to the working-class. They never heard them used.



Right Hon. C. P. Villiers.
Lord Leicester.

Earl Nelson.
Gladstone 60 years ago.

THE FOUR SURVIVORS.

There was no loyalty at all, either to the Queen or to the institution of a limited monarchy, or to the Constitution, or to the Church. Loyalty went out with the Stuarts. The Hanoverian kings were in no sense popular; they represented a principle; they governed with the assistance of a few families, and by the votes of a small class.

Loyalty was extinct, it had to be re-created. It has been re-created. Once more there is on the throne a Sovereign who possesses the love of her people.

They have a saying in India that the true hearth for a home is not a stone but a woman's heart.

Happy is Britain, happy the Empire, that its core and centre is a woman's heart!

In praise from her, great adventurers, soldiers, viceroys, have sought and found their great reward. In her own firmness and in their loyalty to her statesmen have found hope for the Empire, when but for her the four corners of it must have gone crash.

On us in Canada what hold has Britain, what link so binding as the hereditary monarchy? Little enough we care for British politics or politicians, so long as they neither meddle with us nor bar our access to that throne which rises above us, as above them, with ever-increasing splendor. We have our own politics, our own politicians, our own burning questions, our own ways of dealing with them. The internal affairs of the Three Kingdoms are important, but not to us. What is important to us is the Queen and the Royal Family; to us, and to the men of Australasia, of India, of Africa. High above all parties here or there rises before the eyes of English-speaking men the vision of the Hereditary Monarchy. Who would make a pilgrimage to Britain to find there, not the Queen or one of her blood, but some political tool sitting for his term of office in the presidential chair of the British Republic? To such a republic we would say: We can do as well, or better, ourselves. To the Monarchy we look with a finer sense of reverence, and with a more relative sense of honor.

Marshal Marmont was one of Napoleon's favorite marshals. He was minister first to the great Napoleon, and then to Louis XVIII. Napoleon was one of the greatest men the world ever saw; Louis XVIII. a very ordinary man. Yet, Marmont contrasts the finer reverence which, he says, it was impossible not to feel for Louis XVIII. with the sentiment which he and his fellows entertained towards Napoleon. Napoleon was the greater man infinitely. Yet Marmont says they all had the feeling that Napoleon, after all, was their own creation. He was mightier and more powerful than themselves, but he was made by themselves. The old king, he said, who seemed in many ways so commonplace, upon all public occasions appeared to walk silently out of the story of the past. He seemed a part of faith and time.

It is from thence that the passion which genuine Imperialists have for her Majesty derives much of its power, and much of its sacredness. This is the fountain from whence springs our loyal passion for our Queen. It was this deep and undying faith which, in the first Matabele war, moved the hearts of the men who died upon the Shangani River, where, overpowered by numbers, and unable to obtain relief, wounded men drew in closer and closer, and, at last, with their supreme breath, raised the hymn of "God Save the Queen"—and ended life with those words upon their lips.

There are those who say that we must not attribute to our Royal Mistress any part of the glories of the Victorian era. The argument runs thus: The glories of the Victorian era are altogether independent of the personality of the monarch; they are the result of a happy contexture of circumstances. The Queen neither created nor brought forward the men of science who have lived in her reign, the inventors who have done so much for human comfort, the historians who have given back to us the story of the troubled past, the writers and artists who have given to life new and immortal shapes, the statesmen who have shed new lustre upon our history, the generals who have fallen in battle or conducted successful campaigns. All these, it is said, are creations of circumstances; the monarch has had nothing to do with them; their greatness has been coincident with the Victorian era; but Victoria has not been their cause. The growth and the gradual consolidation of the Empire—the most prominent fact of the last sixty years—are due to the scattered members, not at all to the head. "The Queen reigns, she does not govern."

Governments come and governments go; the Queen abides, and guides. Apart altogether from the mysterious charm of Royalty, she represents tradition, continued service, and unrivalled experience. For sixty years Cabinet secrets have been no secrets to her. She has guided the Empire through a hundred crises. In the army, in the navy, in the Colonial Service, in India, at foreign Courts, the Queen has incomparably more influence, if she pleases to exert her influence, than all the leaders of all the political parties put together.

During her sixty years reign her Majesty has seen thirty Colonial Secretaries come and go. Some were Little Englanders. Others were indifferent to Imperial expansion. A few were Imperialists.

In spite of obstacles, the Empire has steadily grown. For, behind every Colonial Secretary, and above him, is the Sovereign, with an Imperial policy, stead-

fastly adhered to, and skilfully carried out under successive administrations, without ever straining the strictest rules of the Constitution. In pursuit of this policy the Queen has spared no pains, shrunk from no sacrifice. She has gathered from the greatest men of the Empire the fruit of their ripe experience. She knows her Colonies better than the jewels in her crown. No question can arise respecting them on which she is not better informed than any Minister of the day can be. At last she has the supreme satisfaction of knowing that her Imperial instincts are shared by all her people; her Imperial policy has become the policy of the Empire.

Therefore because so much of the social and material progress of the past sixty years, because so much of the spirit of unity throughout the Empire, is due to the impulse from the Throne, we say once again, as our closing words,

God Save the Queen !

GOVERNORS-GENERAL OF CANADA SINCE CONFEDERATION.

1. Viscount Monck.....July 1, 1867 to Nov. 13, 1868.
2. Lord Lisgar (Sir John Young).....Dec. 29, 1868 to June 21, 1872.
3. Earl of Dufferin.....June 25, 1872 to Nov. 14, 1878.
4. Marquis of Lorne.....Nov. 25, 1878 to Oct. 21, 1883.
5. Marquis of Lansdowne.....Oct. 23, 1883 to May 30, 1888.
6. Lord Stanley of Preston, }
afterwards Earl of Derby }.....June 11, 1888 to Sept. 6, 1893.
7. Earl of Aberdeen.....Sept. 25, 1893 to

PRIME MINISTERS OF CANADA SINCE CONFEDERATION.

1. Hon. Sir John A. Macdonald.....July 1, 1867 to Nov. 6, 1873.
2. Hon. Alex. Mackenzie.....Nov. 7, 1873 to Oct. 16, 1878.
3. Rt.-Hon. Sir John A. Macdonald.....Oct. 17, 1878 to June 6, 1891.
4. Hon. Sir John J. C. Abbott.....June 16, 1891 to Nov. 24, 1892.
5. Rt.-Hon. Sir John S. D. Thompson.....Dec. 5, 1892 to Dec. 12, 1894.
6. Hon. Sir Mackenzie Bowell.....Dec. 21, 1894 to April 26, 1896.
7. Hon. Sir Charles Tupper.....April 27, 1896 to July 8, 1896.
8. Hon. Wilfrid Laurier.....July 13, 1896 to

Victoria—the Great—and Good!

BY HELEN MARIAN BURNSIDE.

O Queen and Empress—with acclaim
About thy throne thy people throng,
To honor thy beloved name—
May God thy “Diamond Reign” prolong!

How nobly hast thou borne thy part—
How wisely ruled us, and how well
Wrought for thine Empire—hand and heart—
These sixty bygone years can tell!

These sixty years!—a golden age—
Thou in the nation’s midst hath stood,
And traced thy name on History’s page—
Victoria—the Great—and Good!

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